

THE FACTORS PERCEIVED AS
IMPORTANT IN EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP

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Abstract

The present study investigated the factors considered important in effective leadership. Since the popularity of the Trait Approach, leadership research has excluded intelligence and other cognitive factors from study in this area. In this study, an examination of the recent Cognitive Resources Model (Fiedler 1986) and Bass's Transformational versus Transactional Model (Bass 1985) allowed: the comparison of the importance of non-cognitive personality factors and cognitive factors as perceived by managers and employees in effective leadership, a comparison of the importance of dispositional and situational factors as perceived by managers and employees, and, a comparison of manager's self ratings and employees' perceptions of the manager's behaviour. 90 managers and 135 employees received parallel questionnaires containing 1) Bass's Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, and 2) The Leadership Attribution Scale. Significant main effects were obtained for the attribution factors, indicating that personality factors were perceived as being more important than cognitive factors. However, further analyses with the cognitive factor, job tenure excluded, revealed that cognitive factors were perceived as more important than the personality factors, reversing the initial findings. Analyses also revealed that both managers and employees perceived dispositional factors as more important than situational factors, partially supporting the predictions. Further, manager's self ratings and employees' perceptions of the manager's behaviour, did not always correspond, again partially supporting predictions.

Chapter One Introduction

The study of leadership has had many orientations. In this present research an attempt is made to examine the two most recent theories of leadership - firstly a Behavioural Model - Bass's Transformational versus Transactional Model (Bass 1985). Bass's Theory introduces the concept of the leader transforming the employees' efforts to obtain beyond expected performance. Bass contends that other leadership theories have dealt solely with transactional relationships between the leader and the employee, which has only been able to explain expected performance. The second approach, an Interaction Theory, is the Cognitive Resources Model. Proposed by Fiedler (1986), this model deals with the characteristics of effective leaders. Fiedler purports that the cognitive resources - intelligence, technical competence and job tenure - have not been sufficiently addressed in the leadership literature, and yet are important in effective leadership. The present research looks at the different perspectives managers and employees have - firstly in rating the behaviour of managers, as measured by Bass's Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, and secondly, in rating the factors found to be important in effective leadership. In this latter case, Fiedler's cognitive factors and Bass's non-cognitive personality factors are compared to discern whether the exclusion of the cognitive resources from the literature has been justified. Because of the recency of these theories, the research is exploratory in nature, with the intention of directing future researchers to

further study of those dimensions which are perceived as essential to effective leadership.

The chapters that follow consist firstly of a review of the literature. A brief history of leadership research is presented in Chapters 2.1 - 2.5. Section 2.6 introduces Bass's Theory, describing the basis of the theory as well as its supporting evidence. Section 2.7 presents a description of the Cognitive Resources Model. This model differs from Bass's Transformational versus Transactional Theory, in that it is an a posteriori theory - based on the inconsistent findings of Fiedler's earlier research. Because of its recency, Fiedler's Cognitive Model lacks empirical evidence. Since the Cognitive Resources Model is still untested, the main body of this research is focused on discovering the legitimacy of Fiedler's argument, that is, whether or not the cognitive resources - intelligence, technical competence and job tenure - as perceived by managers and employees, are important in effective leadership.

Chapter 3 sets out the Rationale for the study. It is divided into three sections: 3.1 - Cognitive and Personality Factors, 3.2 - Dispositional versus Situational Factors, and 3.3 - A comparison of Manager and Employee perceptions. The three hypotheses tested in this research are then stated.

Chapter 4 sets out the methodology used. It proceeds through the steps of Sample (4.1), Procedure (4.2) and the Instrument used (4.3).

The results are reported in Chapter 5. Following the format set out in the Rationale, this chapter is divided into three sections - Cognitive and Personality Factors (5.1), Dispositional versus Situational Factors (5.2) and a comparison of Manager and Employee perceptions (5.3). Tables supporting the written information are also included.

Chapter 6 contains the Discussion. Consistent with the preceding format, this chapter is again divided into the three sections, 6.1 - 6.3. Limitations of this research are set out in section 6.4. Recommendations concerning future research are presented in section 6.5, and the implications of this research are discussed in section 6.6.

Chapter 7, the final section of this study, summarizes the findings as well as drawing some final conclusions from this research. References and appendices follow this section.

Chapter Two Literature Review.

2.1 Introduction

In this literature review the popular theories of leadership, their contributions, and their failings, are outlined. The aim of the review is to point out the weaknesses of these theories which have led to the development of the two most recent models of leadership - Bass's Transformational versus Transactional Leadership Theory and Fiedler's Cognitive Resources Model. These two theories are reviewed in detail, and an outline given of their rationale and empirical support.

The review begins with a brief history of relevant research. Firstly, the Great Man/Woman Approach is introduced. The Personal Characteristics Approach is then examined. Conclusions drawn from this latter approach have had a pervading influence on later theories. The researcher then considers other major theories which are classified either under the Behavioural approach or the Interactional approach. The theories have been positioned in the appropriate category by the researcher according to the distinct characteristics which differentiate them. However it is noted that these theories have been classified in other ways. The recent theories of Bass and Fiedler may also be classified in these categories - Transformational versus Transactional approach under Behavioural, as it is mainly concerned with leadership behaviour, and the Cognitive Resources Theory under Interactional , as it stresses the importance of the

interaction between the leaders' personal characteristics, behaviour and the situation.

2.2 Great Man/Woman Theories.

One of the earliest approaches of leadership research was the Great Man/Woman Theories. Influenced by Galton's (1869) study of the hereditary background of great men, several early theorists attempted to explain leadership on the basis of inheritance (Carlyle 1907; Dowd 1936; Wiggam 1931; Woods 1913). These theorists purported that individuals, usually found in the upper classes, possessed unique qualities which differentiated them from the lower classes, and the masses were led by these superior few. Attempts were made to identify the traits that differentiated these leaders from non leaders. This led to the development of the Personal Characteristics Approach.

2.3 Personal Characteristics Approach

This approach, known as the Trait Approach, attempted to identify physical characteristics, personality traits, and abilities of "natural leaders". Early leadership researchers were not sure what traits were essential for leadership effectiveness, but they were confident that these could be identified by empirical research. Hundreds of trait studies were carried out at that time. The kinds of traits that were studied most frequently in early leadership research included physical characteristics (height, appearance, energy level), personality (self esteem, dominance, emotional stability) and

ability (general intelligence, verbal fluency, originality, social insight). One of the most influential reviews of such studies, which were carried out between 1904 and 1948, was conducted by Stogdill (1948). Despite finding some characteristics that differentiated leaders from non leaders, Stogdill found that these characteristics varied from situation to situation. Stogdill concluded that,

A person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits...the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities and goals of the followers (Stogdill, 1948, p64).

It was concluded that these earlier studies failed to support the basic premise of the Trait Approach, that is, that a person must possess some particular set of traits in order to become a successful leader. The conclusion of this review as well as others (Gibb 1954; Jenkins 1947; Mann 1959), led to the decline of research which attempted to identify leadership traits. Stogdill (1974) again reviewed trait studies carried out since 1948. A greater variety of measurement procedures had been used in these later studies (for example, Thematic Apperception Test, Leaderless Group Discussion). However, these studies, which dealt mainly with managers and administrators, were carried out by Industrial Psychologists who were principally interested in managerial selection. The early reviews had discouraged many leadership researchers from studying traits. The emphasis, therefore had changed to studying leader traits and their relation to leadership effectiveness, rather than differentiating between

leaders and non leaders. The differences in the methodology used, and the change of emphasis from the earlier studies, led to stronger more consistent results. Based on his later review, Stogdill suggested the following trait profile of successful leaders:

The leader is characterized by a strong drive for responsibility and task completion, vigor and persistence in pursuit of goals, venturesomeness and originality in problem solving, drive to exercise initiative in social situations, self-confidence and sense of personal identity, willingness to accept consequences of decision and action, readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, willingness to tolerate frustration and delay, ability to influence other persons' behavior, and capacity to structure social interaction systems to the purpose at hand (Stogdill 1974, p81).

It was considered that the conclusions researchers drew from these early literature reviews were too hasty. Stogdill has noted that,

The reviews by Bird, Jenkins, and Stogdill have been cited as evidence in support of the view that leadership is entirely situational in origin and that no personal characteristics are predictive of leadership. This view seems to over-emphasize the situational, and underemphasize the personal, nature of leadership (Stogdill 1974, p72).

And more recently, Lord, De Vader and Alliger (1986) purported that Stogdill's (1948) and Mann's (1959) review had often been misinterpreted. They claimed that the early trait research suffered from several methodological errors. Lord et al re-examined the studies reviewed and

conducted a meta analysis on these and more recent studies. Their results revealed significant findings. The traits intelligence, masculinity-femininity and dominance were correlated positively with leadership perceptions. Lord et al concluded that,

personality traits are associated with leadership perceptions to a higher degree and more consistently than the popular literature indicates (Lord et al. 1986, P407).

The implications of these findings will be referred to later.

Today, however, it has been recognised that these traits alone have limited usefulness in predicting a person's leadership potential. The personality of an individual interacts with other characteristics of the situation, determining the effectiveness of the leader.

2.4 The Behavioural Approaches.

There appears to be a disparity in the literature as to the classification of the following theories. The author, however, has chosen to classify these theories under the heading Behavioural Approaches because of their distinct characteristic of studying Behaviour as the primary focus. Other classifications may be found in Bass (1981), Torrington and Chapman (1983) and Yukl (1981).

Ohio State University Studies.

The research carried out at the Ohio State University developed several measures of manager leader behaviour (Fleishman 1953, 1957; Halpin and Winer 1957; Hemphill and Coons 1957). A 150 item questionnaire - the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire - (LBDQ), was designed to be completed by subordinates, peers and supervisors to identify those leadership behaviours paramount for the attainment of goals. Analysis of data collected from this questionnaire indicated that subordinates perceived their leader's behaviour primarily in terms of two distinct categories of leadership behaviour:

1. Consideration - behaviour indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth.
2. Initiating Structure - behaviour that organises and defines relationships, roles and establishes well defined patterns of organisation, communication and ways of getting the job done.

Correlational studies were carried out to determine whether a leader's use of consideration and initiating structure, was related to the leader's effectiveness. (Fleishman and Harris 1962; Skinner 1969). The findings indicated that foremen who were high on consideration had less grievances and turnover in their work units than foremen who were low on consideration. The relationship was the reverse for initiating structure. However, subsequent research using various criteria of leadership effectiveness have been noted in reviews to show that neither behaviour category, that is consideration and initiating structure, is related

consistently to subordinate performance (Kerr and Schriesheim 1974; Korman 1966; Stogdill 1974; Yukl 1971). Attempts to correlate consideration and initiating structure with satisfaction, motivation and performance have also resulted in inconsistent and inconclusive results. Korman (1966) has noted a serious deficiency in research on these categories, regarding the over reliance on static correlational research methods. Correlating satisfaction with performance did not allow the direction of causality to be determined. Laboratory (Day 1971; Day and Hamblin 1964; Herold 1977; Lowin and Craig 1968; Misumi and Seki 1971; Misumi and Shirakashi 1966), and field experiments (Gilmore, Beehr, & Richter 1979; Dawson, Messe, & Phillips 1972; Hand and Slocum 1972; Lowin, Hrapchak, & Kavanagh 1969; Schachter, Willerman, Festinger, & Hyman 1961; Wexley and Nemeroff 1975) attempted to determine the direction of causality by manipulating leader behaviour rather than measuring its existing state. The results of these experiments indicated that considerate and directive - structuring leader behaviour affected subordinates satisfaction and personality under some conditions. However, these effects tended to depend a great deal on the nature of the situation. This research however, has had a profound impact on research, resulting in the widespread use of questionnaires.

The Michigan Studies.

The Michigan Studies, carried out at the University of Michigan, at approximately the same time as the Ohio State University Studies, aimed

to identify the relationships among leader behaviour, group processes and the measures of group performance. The initial research carried out dealt with distinguishing how effective managers differed from ineffective managers (Katz and Kahn 1966; Katz, Maccoby, & Morse 1950; Katz, Maccoby, Gurin, & Floor 1951; Mann and Dent 1954). The results of these studies indicated that effective managers concentrated on supervisory functions - planning, scheduling, co-ordinating and providing the necessary supplies, equipment and technical assistance. However, this concentration on production - centred management, did not occur at the expense of concern for human relations. In fact, the effective managers were found to be more supportive, considerate and helpful with subordinates, than the ineffective managers.

Other research carried out at the University (Coch and French 1948; French 1950; French, Israel and As 1960; Morse and Reimer 1956; Tannenbaum and Allport 1956), concentrated on looking at the way leaders interacted with subordinates in decisions. These researchers hypothesised that leaders would be more effective if they allowed the subordinates to participate in decision making. The results of these studies were mixed - in some situations, participative leadership resulted in greater satisfaction and performance from the subordinates. Likert (1961) has tried to integrate the findings from these studies and has provided a theoretical framework to explain them.

Mintzberg - Managerial Roles.

The research carried out by Mintzberg is the best known on the nature of managerial work. Mintzberg (1973) reviewed the results from previous studies (Blau 1954; Brewer and Tomlinson 1964; Burns 1954, 1957; Carlson 1951; Dale and Urwick 1960; Dubin and Spray 1964; Guest 1956; Hinrichs 1964; Horn and Lupton 1965; Jasinski 1956; Kelly 1964; Lansberger 1961; Lawler, Porter and Tannenbaum 1968; Marples 1968; Ponder 1957; Thomason 1966, 1967), as well as including his own work, and presented ten underlying roles for use in classifying managerial activities. Three of the managerial roles - figurehead, leader and liaison, dealt with interpersonal behaviour; three roles - monitor, disseminator and spokesman[woman], dealt with information processing; and the remaining four roles - entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator and negotiator, dealt with the decision making behaviour of managers. The validity of these roles has yet to be established. Although applicable to most managers, the relative importance of these roles depended on the particular position the manager occupied and the way the manager interpreted them. Morse and Wagner (1978) have used a questionnaire based on Mintzberg's roles, which they administered to two different companies. The most essential managerial roles differed for the two companies, indicating that the manager's effectiveness depended on how well he or she carried out the particular roles that were most important for his or her situation.

Blake and Mouton - The Managerial Grid.

Blake and Mouton (1964) developed the Managerial Grid to identify different leadership styles. The Styles of Leadership Survey was designed to reflect the particular behaviours required under each of five leadership styles.

The two dimensions of the Grid were,

1. Concern for production, and
2. Concern for people.

The Grid allowed for a range of possible interactions to occur between these two dimensions. An ideal style was achieved when the leader scored highly on both dimensions. Blake and Mouton developed the Managerial Grid for use in manager training and development, to achieve a 9/9 Style, that is, the score of an ideal leader. This implied that managers can and should improve their style to increase their effectiveness. There appears to have been no documented studies on the Managerial Grid. However, because of the popularity of the use of this model in training, validation studies are needed.

Bowers and Seashore - Four Factor Theory.

Another theory of managerial effectiveness was proposed by Bowers and Seashore (1966). Their theory was based on the reconceptualisation of the findings on the Michigan and Ohio State Studies. Bowers and Seashore described managerial effectiveness in terms of the following four categories of leadership behaviour:

1. Support - behaviour which emphasised someone else's feeling of personal worth and importance,
2. Interaction Facilitaion - behaviour that encouraged members of the group to develop close, mutually satisfying relationships,
3. Goal Emphasis - behaviour that stimulated an enthusiasm for meeting the group's goal or achieving excellent performance,
4. Work Facilitation - behaviour that helped achieve goal attainment by such activities as scheduling, co-ordinating, planning, and by providing resources such as tools, materials and technical knowledge.

A correlational study was carried out by Bowers and Seashore (1966) using forty agencies in a life insurance company, to discover the extent to which the four categories were associated with agency effectiveness. The results provided limited support for the importance of these four factors as determinants of group effectiveness. Subsequent research revealed different results from study to study. Bowers (1973) reviewed results from 1,683 work groups from 21 organisations. It seemed that leadership behaviour was related to subordinate satisfaction and group processes, but the results tended to vary according to the type of industry and the authority level of the manager. It would seem that the situational factors need to be examined more closely to understand their influence on leadership effectiveness.

The Behavioural Approach focused primarily on behaviour as the important determinant of leadership effectiveness. But the inconsistencies

of research on these theories have revealed the inadequacy of this approach to account for leadership effectiveness. The need to include other determining and intervening variables has been highlighted.

2.5 Interaction Approaches.

The finding that different behaviours and traits become important in different situations, has stressed the need to include these moderator variables in leadership research. Situational factors have now become recognised as important in determining what type of leadership will be appropriate to a specific situation. The inclusion of situational factors in the following models has given rise to more comprehensive theories where the interaction of the leader's personal characteristics, behaviour and the particular situation are taken into account. Within this context however, the current models differ widely.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt - A Framework.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) proposed a conceptual framework for the Interaction Approach and produced one of the most influential papers advocating this approach. Its simple analysis integrated diverse findings to incorporate the determinants of leader effectiveness, by examining the interaction of the forces in the manager - his or her value system, confidence in his or her subordinates; forces in the subordinates; and forces in the situation - type of organisation, how effective the group was as a

work unit, the nature of the problem and the pressure of time. Awareness of these forces helped to guide the manager to display the appropriate leadership behaviour. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) updated their earlier model, outlining a more complex and dynamic version, reflecting the organisational and societal realities that hadn't been acknowledged previously. This second publication also noted the impact and popularity this interaction model has had in the leadership field.

Fiedler - The Contingency Model.

One of the earliest and best known approaches was proposed by Fiedler. Fiedler's early research (1964, 1967), focused on the traits of leaders, attempting to predict leader effectiveness, measured by his well known scale - the Least Preferred Co-worker Scale, (LPC). Fiedler found different results for different leaders, which prompted him to develop a Situational Theory - the Contingency Model in which a leader with a high LPC score would be more effective than a leader with a low LPC score, and vice versa.

The LPC Scale consisted of sixteen bipolar adjectival scales on which the leader rated his or her least preferred co-worker. If the leader was critical of the worker, he/she would score a low LPC score. Leniency on the worker would result in a high LPC score. Fiedler (1971, 1972) has interpreted the scores from the LPC scale in terms of the leader's motive hierarchy. Leaders who score a high LPC score were primarily interested in close interpersonal relationships with other people, and emphasized socializing

with subordinates. Achievement of task objectives were of secondary importance to these leaders. Leaders who scored a low LPC score were primarily motivated by the achievement of task objectives - doing a good job and emphasizing task oriented behaviour. Achievement of close interpersonal relations were secondary in these leaders' motivation.

Fiedler contended that the relationship between the LPC score and the leader's effectiveness depended on the situational variable - situational favourability or control.

Fiedler included three important situational variables that measured situational control:

1. The task structure
2. The leader-member relations
3. The position power the leader has.

According to Fiedler, when the situation was either very high or very low in situational control, leaders with low LPC scores would be more effective than leaders with high LPC scores. Conversely, leaders with high LPC scores would be more effective in situations that were intermediate in situational control.

Fiedler, Chemers and Mahar (1976) have introduced the Leader Match Concept where individuals can identify their LPC style and the situational control within which they operate. This concept taught the leader how to

modify aspects of the situation and/or style to optimize the match between both and thus maximize leader effectiveness. Fiedler and Mahar (1979) reviewed twelve studies which tested the effectiveness of the Leader Match concept, and found that all twelve studies produced statistically significant results, supporting the Leader Match Training. However, Fiedler's Theory has received a great deal of criticism. The criticism aimed especially at Fiedler's measuring instrument - the least preferred co-worker scale. Schriesheim and Kerr (1976) purported that the LPC score was a "measure in search of meaning", and that the current interpretation was speculative and inadequately supported. Foa, Mitchell and Fiedler (1971), Hill (1969) and Singh (1983) argued that the LPC scale measured cognitive complexity (the higher the LPC, the more cognitive complex the leader was), rather than the value for task and interpersonal success in group situations. Ashour (1973) continued the criticism, contending that Fiedler's Contingency Model made predictions without explaining the reasons for these. The supporting results of the models have also been criticized - Graen, Alvares, Orris and Martella (1970), and McMahon (1972) claimed that the supporting results of the model were weak and insignificant. The situational variables have been criticized by Shiflett (1973) who argued that there was no justification for combining the three measures of situational control, that is, the task structure, the leader-member relations, and the position power the leader has, into one unit. Kerr and Harlan (1973) also believed that these situational variables may not be entirely independent from the leader's LPC score. However, Fiedler's Model has been supported

by his own work and by others. Fiedler (1971, 1973, 1977) has attempted to answer his critics, and an exhaustive review of the last twenty - five years of the literature on the LPC by Rice (1978) basically favoured Fiedler's Interpretation of his model. Peters, Hartke and Pohlmann (1985) applied Schmidt and Hunter's (cited in Peters et al, 1985) meta-analysis procedures, to the research carried out on Fiedler's Contingency Theory. Results suggested that the theory was appropriately induced from the studies on which it was based, but studies carried out to test the model were less supportive. There is need it seems, to continue research on Fiedler's Contingency Theory, before a practical application can be confidently made.

Hersey and Blanchard - Three Dimensional Theories.

Building on the aforementioned two dimensional Managerial Grid developed by Blake and Mouton (1964), and on Reddin's three dimensional model (Reddin 1967), Hersey and Blanchard (1972, 1977) added a third dimension - effectiveness, to explain the inconsistent findings of the measures, consideration and initiating structure in the Ohio State University Studies. This theory concentrated on two categories of behaviour, Task Behaviour and Relationship Behaviour which approximately correspond to the Initiating Structure and Consideration categories. The one situational moderator variable that Hersey and Blanchard dealt with was follower maturity, which was defined as "the capacity to set high but attainable goals, the willingness to take

responsibility and education and/or experience." (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p161). Follower maturity involved job maturity - subordinate's task-relevant skills and technical knowledge, and psychological maturity - feeling of self confidence and self respect. Depending on the subordinates level of maturity, the leader adjusted his or her behaviour to increase or decrease the Task and Relationship Behaviour. Hersey and Blanchard provided little evidence in support of their theory, claiming that their theory explained results of earlier studies. However, Yukl (1981) has pointed out that few of the earlier studies measured follower maturity as defined, and the kind of analysis needed to evaluate the complex relationships in this theory was also lacking. Many important situational variables have also been ignored in this theory. But the theory has added to the realization of the need for flexible, adaptable leader behaviour, and has emphasised the importance of treating subordinates individually and differently, according to the situation.

Evans and House - Path Goal Theory.

Although proposed separately, Evans and House both developed the Path Goal Theory. Evans (1970) put forward a non situational version, whereas House (1971) formulated a more elaborate version including situational variables. The theory has been revised several times since (House and Dessler 1974; House and Mitchell 1974; Stinson and Johnson 1975). The Path Goal Theory lies within the Expectancy framework of motivation theory (Vroom 1964).

According to House,

the motivational function of the leader consists of increasing personal payoffs to subordinates for goal attainment, and making the path to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing roadblocks and pitfalls and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction en route (House 1971, p324).

House's initial theory attempted, as in Hersey and Blanchard's Model, to account for the inconsistent research findings, especially concerning leader consideration and initiation of structure. House and Dessler (1974) reviewed this theory and proposed leader behaviour in terms of:

1. Supportive Leadership (similar to consideration)
2. Instrumental or Directive Leadership (similar to initiating structure)
3. Participative Leadership
4. Achievement Orientated Leadership (proposed by House and Mitchell 1974)

The situational variables included nature of subordinates, group task and the work environment. These situational variables determined the potential and the manner in which the leader must act, to increase subordinate motivation. These variables also determined subordinates preferences for a particular type of leadership behaviour. The effect of the leader behaviour on subordinate motivation and satisfaction therefore depended on the leadership situation.

Reviews of the research on the Path Goal Theory (Follett, House and Kerr

1976; House and Mitchell 1974; Schriesheim and Von Glinow 1977) found mixed results. However, Schriesheim and Kerr (1977) pointed out that lack of support may have been due partly to the methodological errors of these studies. Weaknesses of this theory were also pointed out - the underlying concept of the theory is questionable (Schriesheim and Kerr 1977) and there is a lack of information concerning the interaction of situational variables (Osborn 1974). However, the Path Goal Theory has provided a conceptual framework to guide researchers in identifying potentially important situational moderator variables. A recent study by Fulk and Wendler (1982) extended the Path Goal Theory to consider a broader range of leader behaviours and subordinate variables, and supported the underlying premises of the theory. Continued research on this theory is still warranted.

Yukl - The Multiple Linkage Model.

Yukl (1971) proposed the theory of Multiple Linkages to encourage progress toward more comprehensive theories of leader effectiveness. Yukl suggested that a leader's short term effectiveness depended on how skillfully he or she acted in recognising and correcting any deficiencies in the intervening variables in his or her work unit, for example, in subordinates' effort, motivation, role clarity, skills, the resources and support services, the organisation and co-ordination of subordinate activities, group cohesiveness, team work and the leader-subordinate relations. The situation determined which intervening variables were

most important, which ones needed improvement and what corrective action the leader may have needed to employ. In the long term, effectiveness may be improved by changing some of the situational variables to create a more favourable situation, for example, strategy planning, policy formation, programme development, organizational change and political activities.

Because of the general nature of this model, no empirical testing has been carried out, but it has identified important variables that may give impetus to future study.

Vroom and Yetton - Model of Decision Participation.

Vroom and Yetton (1973) built on earlier decision theories (Maier 1963; Tannenbaum and Schmidt 1958) and developed a model based on how a leader's decision behaviour affects decision quality and subordinate acceptance of the decision. Intervening variables that may jointly affect group performance were:

1. The technical quality or rationality of decisions,
2. The acceptance or commitment by subordinates to execute decisions effectively.

Vroom and Yetton identified five decision procedures that could be used to make decisions involving some or all of the leader's immediate subordinates. These procedures included two varieties of autocratic decisions, two of consultation decisions and one involving joint decision

making by the subordinate and the leader. Effectiveness of the decision depended on a number of aspects of the situation - the importance of decision quality and acceptance, the amount of relevant information possessed by the leader and the subordinate, the likelihood that subordinates would accept an autocratic decision, the likelihood that subordinates would co-operate and try to make a good decision if allowed to participate, and the amount of disagreement among subordinates. This model has also provided rules for leaders to make certain decisions, or avoid others, when the quality and acceptance of the decision may be threatened.

Research that has been carried out on this model has been supportive (Field 1979, 1982; Hill and Schmitt 1977; Jago 1978; Vroom and Jago 1978). However, some researchers have criticised the Decision Model - Field (1979) purported that the model dealt with only one aspect of leader behaviour, and therefore the utility of the model was questionable. Tjosvold, Wedley and Field (1986) supported the model but advocated the addition of constructive discussion of opposing opinions, before making the decision. It has also been suggested that this model should be integrated with main effect models, for example, Blake and Mouton (1964), because of the lack of independence of the situational factors.

Vroom and Yetton developed some decision process flow charts to simplify decision making. The leader began by asking him or herself a set

of questions and chose alternatives according to the answers. The end point indicated which decision procedures were most feasible for that particular situation.

The aim of this model was to develop a practical procedure for managers and therefore looks promising, but once again, more research is needed to validate it.

Vertical Dyad Model.

One of the major characteristics of contemporary leadership literature has been the assumption that leaders manifest one consistent leadership style. (Blake and Mouton 1964; Bowers and Seashore 1966; Evans 1970; Fiedler 1967; Fleishmann 1953; House 1971; Mann 1959; Stogdill 1948; Yukl 1971). The Vertical Dyad Linkage Model (Dansereau, Graen and Haga 1975; Graen and Cashman 1975) however did not assume that leaders display the same leadership style with all their subordinates. The term vertical dyad referred to the relationship between the leader and one individual subordinate. The basis of this theory was that leaders and subordinates exert reciprocal influences over each other. Managers therefore had to fulfill a number of roles, each selected according to the activity, time, and subordinate concerned. Effective leaders were those who can vary their behaviour patterns appropriately, depending on each particular superior - subordinate dyad. According to this theory, certain subordinates were chosen because of their competence and skill, the extent to which they can be trusted and

their motivation to assume greater responsibility within the work unit. These subordinates (in-group), were given preferential treatment by the leader, took on added responsibilities and made contributions that go beyond their formal job duties. In return, the subordinates received greater attention, support, and sensitivity from the leader. The out-group, or the unchosen, received the more routine tasks and were in a more formal exchange relationship with the leader.

Dansereau et al (1975) provided empirical evidence of the Vertical Dyad Linkage Model, which has been replicated by Graen and Cashman (1975). Cashman, Dansereau, Graen and Haga (1976) extended the research on this model to include two levels in the authority hierarchy. The results indicated that the relationships between the subordinates and the manager were partly influenced by the manager's relationship with his or her own boss. This study has highlighted the situational constraints on a leader's ability to establish a special relationship with subordinates, thereby curtailing his or her own perceived effectiveness. Graen and Schieman (1978) purported that the leader's effectiveness was also dependent on the leader's flexibility in perceiving and adapting to the relevant characteristics of the subordinates and circumstances. Other studies (Liden and Graen 1980; Vecchio and Gobdel 1984) have continued to support the Vertical Dyad Linkage Model.

According to this theory, individual subordinates would describe the same manager differently although quite accurately, according to their own

perception. The implication of this for research, is to treat each leader and subordinate as an independent pair for analysis, a factor that has been taken into account by the author in the present research.

Although research for this theory has been weak, the underlying constructs of the Vertical Dyad Model are sound and should become the source of future research.

2.6 Transformational versus Transactional Leadership

The models of leadership that have been discussed so far dealt with many different aspects of leadership, but mainly concentrated on the behaviour which leaders should adopt in different situations to be effective. However, although these approaches may have different orientations, they have all concentrated on the effects of leadership on the first order changes, that is, the focus being on the cost benefit exchange between the leader and the subordinate - the transactional relationship that existed in which the followers' needs could be met if their performance measured up to the contracts made with their leader. However, according to Bass (1985), these theories have failed to account for much unexplained variance in the subordinates' effort and performance. There has been a growing dissatisfaction in the literature regarding the inadequacies of the existing theories in accounting for what Mueller (1980) has coined the "leading edge" type of leadership (Bass 1985; Hambrick and Mason 1983(cited in

Bass, 1985); Meyer 1980). Bass has expressed this dissatisfaction by proposing a theory to explain this variance. His theory advocated a study of the higher order of change - a look at subordinates effort and performance that goes beyond the boundaries or predictions of the current leadership theories - an examination of the concept Transformational Leadership.

Bass has attempted to build onto the existing Transactional Models of Leadership to explain how some leaders emerged, no matter in what situation they found themselves. He also attempted to account for how some leaders directed their subordinates attention to an idealized goal, inspiring them to extend themselves beyond expected performance and to achieve goals that resulted in higher order changes.

The following is an explanation of Transactional and Transformational Leadership and the empirical evidence supporting Bass's Theory.

Transactional Leadership.

Burns (1978) described the Transactional Leader (with reference to the political arena) as a leader who motivated followers by exchanging rewards for services rendered. This involved an exchange or transaction. The process, according to Bass (1985), is shown in Figure 1.

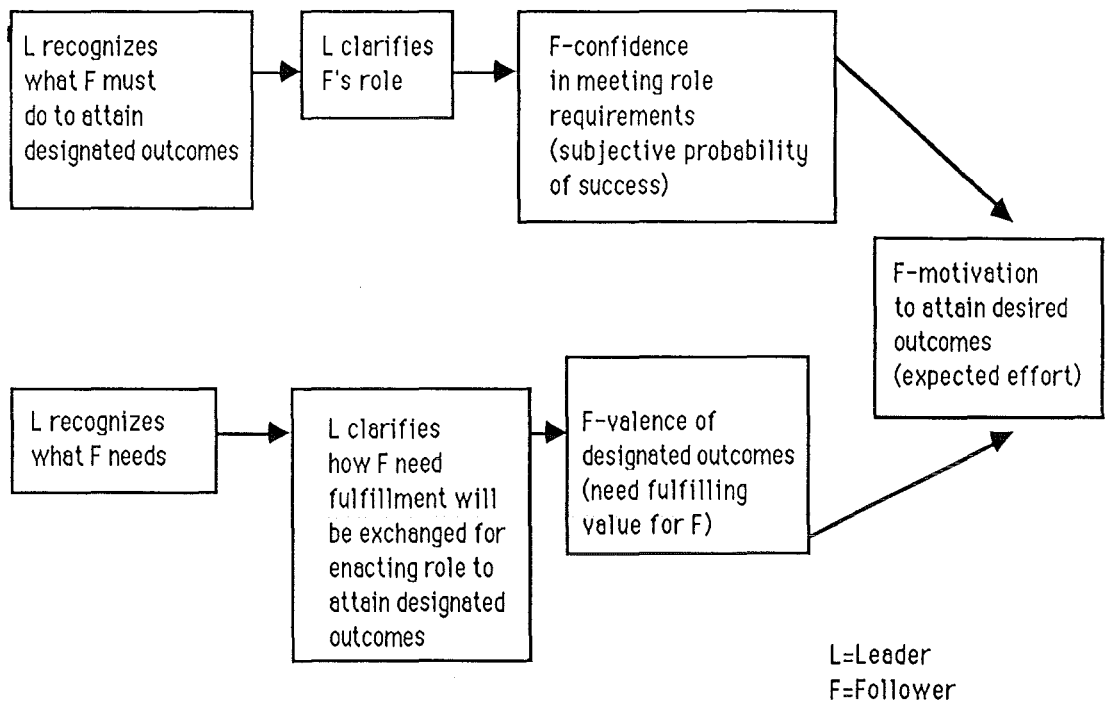


Figure 1: Model of Transactional Leadership and Follower Effort.
(reproduced from Bass 1985, p12)

Based on Vroom's Expectancy Theory, the effort subordinates exerted depended on:

1. the expectation that the outcome could and would be achieved by performance,
2. the value the outcome has to the subordinate.

Transactional leaders recognized and clarified the needs, role and task requirements that the subordinate must have accomplished in order to obtain his or her desired outcomes. The subordinates gained confidence through this process and exerted the necessary effort to attain these goals.

Simply put, Transactional Leadership was contingent reinforcement (Avolio and Bass 1985). Leaders could use both positive and negative contingent reinforcement to motivate followers towards or against certain outcomes. The positive reinforcement, or contingent reward related to effort and performance directed towards certain goals which were reinforced with rewards that were desired by the employee. On the other hand, the negative mode or management by exception was used to stop or change a subordinates behaviour which was not directed towards the desired goal.

There has been support for the use of Transactional Leadership to increase job performance and satisfaction (Hunt and Schuler 1976, Luthans and Kreitner 1975, Reitz 1971, Spector and Suttell 1957 (cited in Bass, 1985) Oldman 1976; ; Sims 1977;), but it has also been found that some managers did not know how to use this style, especially management by exception (Ilgen and Knowlton 1980; Yankelovich and Immerwarn 1983). Managers, to be effective with this style needed to use both positive and negative Transactional Leadership at the appropriate times. Results as expected may have been achieved by the effective use of this type of leadership and these results would be rewarded, no matter how they were achieved. Thus Transactional Leadership was inadequate for explaining how the best results could be attained and how performance beyond expectations could be achieved. Bass's Transformational Theory, however could explain these factors.

It was not Bass's intention to criticize the Transactional orientation, but to build on to it. After all, Transactional Leadership was a necessary skill to

effectively manage the day to day mundane events that clog most leaders agendas. Without Transactional skills, even the most awe inspiring Transformational leader may fail to accomplish his/her mission (Avolio and Bass, 1985 p5).

Transformational Leadership.

The Transformational leader motivated his or her followers to do more than they originally expected. Burns (1978) proposed that Transformational leaders motivated subordinates to work for higher order self actualizing needs rather than focusing on the first order self interest needs - the needs satisfied by Transactional leaders. These needs were based on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1954), where the fulfilment of the highest order, that is self actualizing needs, was the aim of most individuals. A model of Transformational Leadership is given in Figure 2.

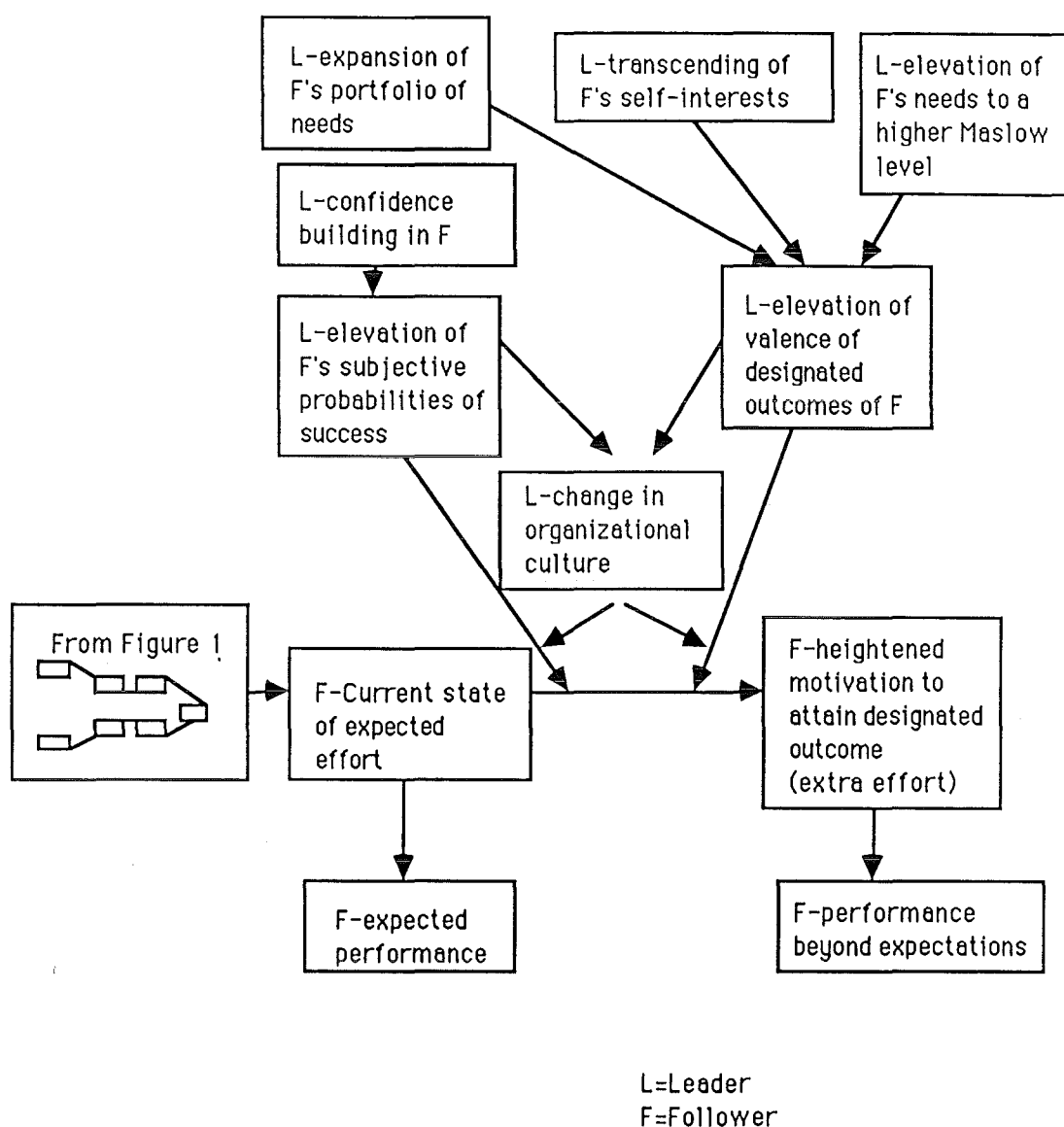


Figure 2: Model of Transformational Leadership and Extra Follower Effort.
(reproduced from Bass 1985, p23)

The original expectation of performance was generated from the Transactional Model (Figure 1), based on the confidence to exert the necessary effort to accomplish the desired goals. Bass expanded this model and suggested several ways a transformation of this original expectation could be achieved.

1. By raising the subordinates' level of awareness, the level of consciousness about the importance and value of designated outcomes, and ways of reaching them.
2. By getting the subordinates to transcend their own self interest for the sake of the team, organisation of larger polity.
3. By altering the subordinates' need level on Maslow's Hierarchy, or expanding their portfolio of needs and wants. (Bass p20)

Bass has carried out preliminary work on this Transformational versus Transactional Model. Seventy male industrial executives completed an open ended survey to discover the underlying constructs of Bass's Theory. From this pilot study, the results

led to speculation that while transactional leadership can provide satisfactory payoffs in the short term, Transformational leadership is likely to generate more effort, creativity and productivity in the long run. Subordinate confidence as an organisation member will be developed further as a consequence of the Transformational leader's nurturance and vision (Bass, 1985 p30).

As a followup, indepth interviews were carried out with a representative national sample of 845 working Americans. The results indicated that employees felt that managers had little idea of how to motivate subordinates to do their best. As a result, Bass decided to discover exactly what the behavioural components of Transactional and Transformational Leadership were and their relation to performance outcomes of satisfaction

and effectiveness.

The behavioural descriptions obtained from the preliminary studies, as well as items derived from the literature, especially those concerning charisma, influence processes and the dynamics of exchange, formed the basis of a questionnaire designed to reveal the underlying factorial composition of Transactional and Transformational leader behaviour. Seventy - Three of the original items were selected by students to be included in the questionnaire - now known as the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. One Hundred and Four Army Personnel were asked to describe their current immediate superior, in terms of the frequency with which their superior displayed the behaviours given in the questionnaire. Split half reliabilities of the scale, measured for the Transactional items, 0.86, and for the Transformational items, 0.80. Correlations of the Transactional and Transformational items with each other, however were relatively high, 0.72. A factor analysis was therefore necessary. Seven factors emerged. Because of the small sample size, the validity of the factors at this stage was questionable. The addition of the data from seventy - two senior military officers did not change the factors substantially. The first five factors emerged unchanged and accounted for ninety percent of the common variance. These factors have since been confirmed in various empirical studies. Two of the factors deal with Transactional leadership. These were contingent reward and management by exception, as previously mentioned.

Contingent reward or contingent positive reinforcement accounted for 6.3% of the variance among the seventy three items. The leader displaying this style of leadership frequently told the subordinate what to do to achieve a desired reward for his or her efforts.

Management by exception or the contingent negative reinforcement mode, was displayed by leaders who avoided giving directions if the old ways were working and as long as performance goals were met. Negative reinforcement in the form of punishment or dismissal may have resulted if these goals failed to be achieved. This factor accounted for 4.3% of the variance.

The three Transformational factors that emerged were:

1. *Charismatic Leadership,*

This factor accounted for the majority of the Transformational factors, at 64.9% of the 89.5% variance. The leaders who frequently displayed this type of leadership instilled pride, faith and respect, had a gift for seeing what was really important and had a sense of mission (or vision) which was effectively articulated. However this factor could not account for Transformational Leadership on its own.

2. Individualized Consideration,

This accounted for 6.0% of the common variance, and explained leaders who delegated projects to stimulate and create learning experiences, paid personal attention to followers needs, especially those who seemed neglected and treated each follower with respect and as an individual.

3. Intellectual Stimulation,

This accounted for 6.3% of the variance. Leaders provided ideas which resulted in a rethinking of old ways, and enabled followers to look at problems from many different angles and to resolve those which seemed overwhelming.

Satisfaction with the leader and perceived effectiveness of the leader and the work unit (combined as one) were also measured. Correlations of the five factors with these categories provided support for Bass's Theory. Subordinates were more satisfied and perceived the leader and unit as more effective when the leadership was Transformational, especially when it was charismatic. Table 1 shows these results. Additional analyses were carried out on these factors, but these have little relevance to the present research, and may be found in Bass (1985).

Table 1: Correlations of perceived satisfaction and effectiveness of the leader with transformational and transactional behaviour. (reproduced from Bass 1985, p219)

FACTOR	SATISFACTION	EFFECTIVENESS
Transformational		
1. Charisma	.91	.85
3. Individualized consideration	.76	.70
5. Intellectual stimulation	.55	.47
Transactional		
2. Contingent reward	.45	.41
4. Management by exception	.29	.23

Empirical Evidence for Bass's Model.

Various studies have been carried out by Bass and other researchers, based on the five personality factors and using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. These included:

- i) studies on self perceived discrepancies between managers own leadership style and what they would like it to be,
- ii) ratings of world class leaders (Bass, Avolio, & Goodheim, 1984),
- iii) ratings of New Zealand professionals and managers and educational administrators,
- iv) data obtained from a large sample of United States supervisors and managers (Waldman, Bass and Einstein 1984 (cited in Bass, 1985).

The information from these studies were combined and fitted against the model of Transformational Leadership (Figure 2). By adding the Transformational scores to the Transactional scores, extra effort and

performance above and beyond that due to Transactional Leadership could be calculated. As shown in Table 2, increments of 25-37% above the Transactional scores for extra effort; 27-48% for perceived effectiveness and 9.0% for performance were computed. These studies provide considerable support for Bass's model.

Table 2: Percentage of extra effort by followers as a result of Transformational Leadership. (reproduced from Bass 1985, p228)

Sample	Transactional Factors only	Incremental effort of Transformational Factors	Combined Effects
		EXTRA EFFORT	
189 colonels	26%	37%	63%
72 officers	37%	36%	73%
256 managers	59%	25%	84%
		PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS	
189 colonels	18%	48%	66%
72 officers	22%	27%	49%
		APPRAISED SUBORDINATE PERFORMANCE	
256 managers	0%	9%	9%

Other independent studies have been carried out based on Bass's Transformational versus Transactional Model. Singer (1985) conducted research on New Zealand Company Managers, obtaining ratings of real and ideal leaders. Bass's findings of higher correlations, with transformational factors with perceived leader effectiveness and job satisfaction, than with the transactional factors, were replicated. Perceived work unit effectiveness however was highly correlated with all factors.

The ratings of the ideal leader were significantly different from real leader ratings. Singer concluded:

N.Z. managers in this study would prefer working with leaders who are more transformational than transactional and that they believe that they could carry out their duties most effectively with transformational leaders (Singer, 1985 p145).

However, because of the low response rate of 30.4%, the generalizability of this study was questionable.

Singer and Singer (1986) carried out an exploratory study on the possible links of personality traits of subordinates with their preference for Transformational versus Transactional Leadership style. The researchers hypothesized that,

subordinates who have a strong need for affiliation (e.g., to form strong attachments), succourance (e.g., to seek encouragement from others), and achievement....would prefer charismatic leaders who provide individualized consideration as well as intellectual stimulation....(and) that subordinates who have the tendency to conform to existing norms would prefer transactional leader (Singer and Singer, 1986 p776).

Correlations between measures of leadership preference and the subordinates personality traits indicated that subordinates with high needs for affiliation seemed to favour charismatic leaders and leaders who provided individual consideration. Subordinates with high needs for

nonconforming had a preference for leaders who provided intellectual stimulation. Again the finding that the subjects of this study preferred working with leaders who were more transformational than transactional, was replicated.

Singer and Singer (1987) have explored the effects of situational constraints on Transformational versus Transactional Leadership behaviour. Bass (1985, p153) has distinguished between internal and external organisational environments. With reference to the internal environment, Bass has speculated that Transactional Leadership was more likely to appear in mechanistic organisations, where the goals and structure were clear and/or where members worked under formal work contracts, compared to organic organisations where the goals and structure were unclear but warmth and trust was high, and members were usually highly educated and were expected to be creative (Burns and Stalker 1961). The researchers used the Police, as an example of a mechanistic organisation, to explore this speculation. Looking at the external organisational environment, Bass speculated, with reference to leadership styles in Chinese Society, that there would be an equal amount of Transformational and Transactional Behaviour displayed in Chinese organisations. The inclusion of Taiwanese company employees expanded the sample to investigate whether the shared influence of traditions in Chinese society, had the effect of both styles of leadership being displayed in equal amounts. It was also hypothesised that both samples would prefer Transformational styles,

although comparatively, the Taiwanese sample would report higher preference ratings for transactional leadership.

Results however, indicated that mechanistic organisations such as the Police did not necessarily foster Transactional Leadership behaviour. The leadership in Taiwanese companies was as expected - equally transformational and transactional. The preferences for transformational style seemed to be universal, and as predicted, Taiwanese employees had a greater preference for transactional leaders. Overall, it appeared that situational constraints tended to modify actual leader behaviour.

2.7 Cognitive Resources Model.

As previously stated, the conclusions drawn from the reviews on Trait Studies by Stogdill (1948) and Mann (1959) concluded that there was a weak relationship between some personality factors and leadership performance. Stogdill and Mann reported correlations between intelligence test scores and leadership performance of only 0.22 to 0.28. The evidence linking leader experience to leadership performance was equally discouraging. A review of thirteen studies correlating experience and performance measures yielded a median correlation of -0.12 (Fiedler 1970) and similar results have been reported elsewhere (McNamara, 1968 (cited in Fiedler, 1986); Bors and Fielder 1976). As a result of these findings, the theories that have been presented so far seem to have excluded these

important personality traits from their research. These factors however play a major role in selection and promotion practices (Campell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weick 1970). Leadership presumably requires the individual to abstract, conceptualize and make complex judgements. All these are functions encompassed by the usual definitions of intelligence (Butcher 1968). It would seem logical therefore that intelligence and other personality factors would play a more significant role in leadership effectiveness than the current literature suggested.

Fiedler (1986) advocated this idea and has concentrated his research in support of this area. His work has concentrated on three cognitive factors - intelligence, job-related knowledge or experience and technical competence. Early studies by Fiedler have found these factors to be important under certain conditions, for example, in groups with sociometrically accepted leaders (Fiedler and Meuwese 1963; Meuwese and Fiedler 1965), under low stress conditions (Fiedler, Potter, Zais and Knowlton 1979; Potter and Fiedler 1981) and when the leader displayed directive skills (Blades and Fielder 1976).

These studies have provided Fiedler with a framework for proposing his most recent Model - The Cognitive Resources Model. Fiedler included the three factors intelligence, technical competence and experience under the definition of Cognitive Resources. Fiedler assumed that time or job tenure in the organisation provided job relevant experience, although the

definition of experience frequently has encompassed more than time in a job or in an organisation. Time is therefore seen as necessary but not sufficient to gain job relevant skills and knowledge.

The basic assumption of this theory was that,

the more intelligent and knowledgeable leaders make better plans and decisions than do those with less ability (Fiedler, 1986, P533).

In his discussion of the theory, Fiedler has mainly concentrated on the cognitive resource, intelligence.

Based on his past research, Fiedler has proposed four hypotheses:

1. Relevant abilities of directive leaders would correlate more highly with group performance when the leader was directive than when the leader was not, (A directive leader was one who communicated plans, decisions and strategies in the form of directive behaviour),
2. Under conditions of high stress, the correlations between leader intelligence and performance would be significantly lower than under low stress, (Under stressful, anxiety provoking conditions, the intellectual effort of leaders was focused on problems not directly relevant to the task),

3. Leaders' abilities would correlate with group performance primarily in groups which indicated their support for the leader, (Leaders' directions would not be implemented unless the group was supportive of leaders or the organisational goals),

4. Measures of leader intelligence would correlate more highly with task performance of intellectually demanding tasks than of tasks which did not require intellectual effort, (In non stressful groups, directive leaders' intellectual abilities would correlate with performance to the extent to which the task required these abilities).

Fiedler presented data from earlier field studies in support of his Cognitive Resources Theory. The results of this preliminary support are shown in Figure 3.

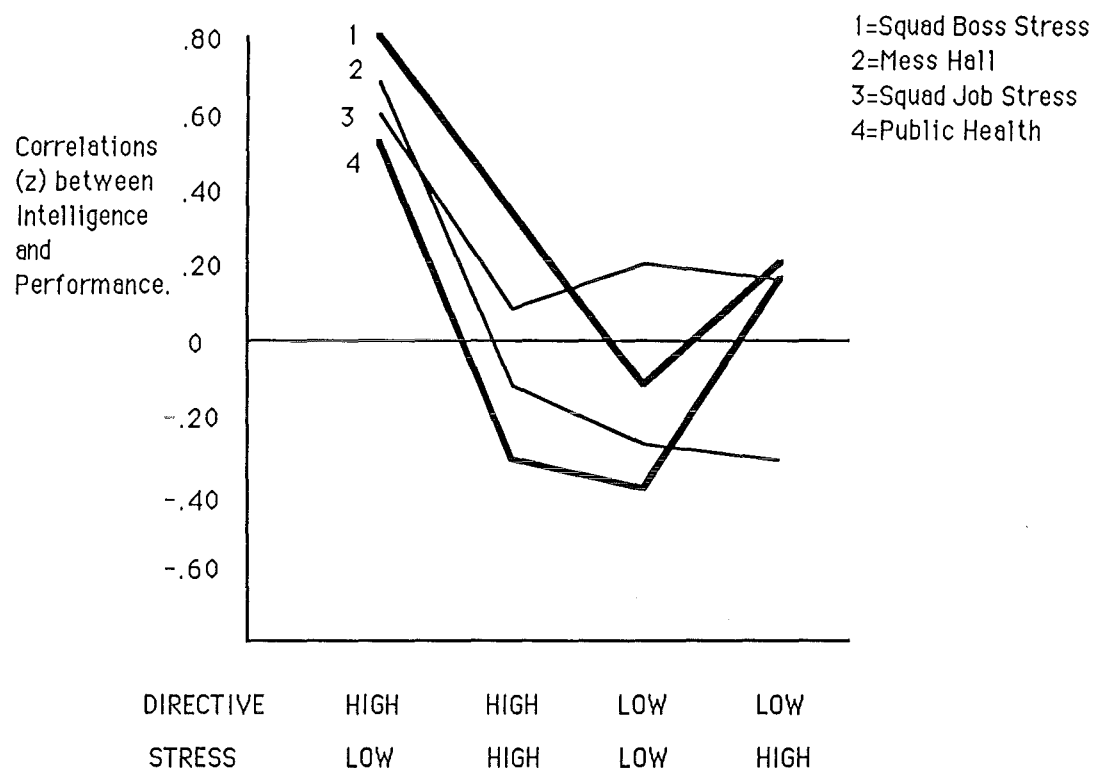


Figure 3: Correlations between intelligence and performance from three studies carried out by Fiedler. (reproduced from Fiedler 1986, p545)

The four hypotheses of this model gave specific conditions under which the leaders' intellectual abilities contributed to group performance or leader effectiveness. The data from:

1. Mess Halls (Csoka 1974; Blades 1976; Blades and Fiedler 1976),
 2. Army Squad Leaders, two measures, (Bons and Fiedler 1976), and
 3. Public Health Teams (Fiedler, O'Brien and Ilgen 1969),
- all showed consistent trends. In support of the first hypothesis, higher correlations between intelligence and performance when leaders were directive, 0.3, 0.49 and 0.61 versus non directive leaders -0.26, 0.01 and -0.23,

were found. The second hypothesis was also supported and limited support given to hypothesis three - correlations were highest in cells in which directive leaders had high group support and in which leaders experienced low stress with their boss or immediate supervisor. Figure 3 also showed an unexpected increase in the performance - intelligence correlation under low directiveness and high stress conditions. Researchers have suggested that managers who had a highly stressful relationship with their supervisor tended to rely on their experience but not their intelligence in performing their tasks. Stress with the boss strongly affected the individual's ability to utilize his or her intellectual abilities and knowledge. Experience here served as a substitute for creative thinking. However, if under relatively unstressful relations, the individual relied on his or her intelligence but not on his or her experience. (Fiedler, Potter, Zais and Knowlton 1979; Fiedler and Leister 1977; Potter 1978; Frost 1983; and Knowlton 1979; Zais 1979 (cited in Fiedler, 1986).

Fiedler has only discussed intelligence in detail and has made mention of experience - acting as a substitute for intelligence under highly stressful conditions. The discussion of the model has not included detail of job tenure or of technical competence, and the role these factors play in effective leadership. These two factors need to be explored more fully and the conditions identified under which they become important.

Tentative conclusions only may be drawn from Fielder's support for cognitive resources, considering that the theory was developed from the previous studies noted. Because of the recency of Fiedler's Model (1986), no empirical research has yet been carried out to test its validity.

Chapter Three Rationale

Over the last few years, the New Zealand economy has changed its orientation from a protected to a market economy. New Zealand has had to become highly sensitive to the international market and substantially increase efficiency in all areas, in order to remain competitive. For this reason, the selection of effective, innovative leaders has become increasingly essential. To this end, it is necessary to identify those characteristics which differentiate effective from ineffective leaders.

3.1 Cognitive and Personality Factors.

One of the earliest approaches in leadership research, the Trait Approach, attempted to identify characteristics of effective leaders. However, reviews by Stogdill (1948) and Mann (1959) concluded that leaders did not possess a particular set of traits. The reporting of low correlations between intelligence and experience with leader performance (Stogdill 1948; Mann 1959; Fiedler 1970) led to the decline of the study of these factors and led to the focus on behavioural and situational orientations in the literature. From the organisation's point of view, this low correlation is a critical problem. Unless the organisation is able to benefit fully from the intellectual resources and background that the individual brings to the job, the investment placed in human resources is of little advantage to the organisation. And yet, most selection methods used in the recruitment of executives are based on the individual's intellectual abilities, background

and former training. Fiedler (1986) has proposed the Cognitive Resources Theory to account for the importance placed on these factors. Based on past research, Fiedler has proposed that intelligence, technical competence and job tenure were important in effective leadership under certain conditions. The conditions that have been identified by Fiedler (1979) were boss stress, support by employees and leader directiveness. Fiedler and his associates have found that conditions of low boss stress, high support from the employees and directiveness by the leader, fostered the use of the leader's intelligence. However, when these conditions were not ideal, experience became important, and was sometimes used as a substitute for intellectual thinking.

As previously mentioned, the emphasis in the leadership literature has been away from these cognitive resources, for example, the recent Transformational versus Transactional Theory proposed by Bass (1985) has concentrated on the personality traits or non-cognitive behaviour of leaders. It is important at this stage to discover whether the exclusion of the cognitive resources from the research on leadership has been justified, and whether the concentration of the research on the non-cognitive aspects of leader behaviour has been warranted. A comparison of Bass's personality factors and Fiedler's cognitive factors in the present research would demonstrate where the emphasis of the leadership research should be focussed. Because the past emphasis has aimed at the non-cognitive behavioural components of leadership, it is predicted that in this research,

personality factors would be found to be more important than cognitive factors in effective leadership.

3.2 Dispositional versus Situational Factors.

According to Attribution Theory, people who were engaged in a given behaviour, i.e. the actors, frequently attributed their conduct to their situation rather than to their own dispositions. However, observers who viewed the actors' behaviour were much more inclined to explain these actions in terms of the actors' qualities (Jones and Nisbett 1972). Based on this principle, it is hypothesized by the researcher that managers - the actors, would attribute effectiveness to situational variables and that employees - the observers, would attribute the leaders' effectiveness to the personality or dispositional factors. It is therefore expected that the interaction between the attribution factors, i.e. dispositional and situational, and the subject sample of managers and employees, would be significant.

However, the existence of preconceived ideas of what characteristics an effective leader possesses, may bias the results. Cantor and Mischel (1979) have argued that when people perceived others, they formed cognitive categories or prototypes into which these people were grouped. Prototypes or schemas are abstract collections of the attributes most commonly shared by category members. The process of classifying people into categories involved matching the characteristics of the person to the existing

existing prototype. Relating this social - cognitive view to leadership perceptions, Eden and Leviatan (1975) and Rush, Thomas and Lord (1977) suggested that individuals possessed implicit leadership theories about the behaviour and expectations of the leader. This leadership schema or implicit leadership theory may bias the accuracy of leader descriptions. Mount and Thompson (1987) found that ratings were more accurate when the behaviours of the ratee were consistent with the expectations of the rater. Therefore, if the leader's behaviour matched the employees' preconceived idea or their implicit theory of what characterised an effective leader, then the leader who was being perceived, would be rated as effective.

Mount and Thompson (1987) suggested that expected behaviours would be more salient and would therefore be noticed and recalled more easily than unexpected behaviours. When this is applied to the different perspectives of managers (actors), and employees (observers), various aspects of the leader's environment would be more salient to each group than would others. Thus managers and employees would have different schemas and expectations of the leader's behaviour which would be reflected in differences in their ratings of the situational and dispositional factors.

3.3 A comparison of Manager and Employee perceptions.

The final section of this research concerns how managers rate themselves

compared to ratings made by their employees. Attribution Theory would predict that the actors - managers and the observers - employees, have different perspectives and often explain the actor's behaviour quite differently. In examining the past research on Transformational versus Transactional Leadership Theory, some studies have gathered ratings from employees (Bass 1985; Singer 1985; Singer and Singer 1986,1987), and others have used self ratings by managers (Bass 1985). If these ratings do not correspond, the question must be raised as to whether some of the findings were invalid. Both sets of ratings, that is from the manager's self-ratings and employees' ratings of the manager, could not be substituted for one another as they each measured perceptions by different people in different roles. By obtaining ratings from both subordinates and managers, an analysis could be made of how closely they agree. Such an analysis has not been made previously.

The orientation of the present research goes beyond gathering ratings of leader behaviour. Rather, an attempt is made to discover the cognitive structure underlying leadership perceptions, and the effects of these leadership schemas on the ratings of leaders.

The following Hypotheses are therefore advanced:

Hypothesis One.

To test the relative perceived importance of cognitive versus personality factors in determining effective leadership, it is expected that both managers and employees would rate cognitive resources as less important than the non-cognitive personality factors.

Hypothesis Two.

Within the framework of Attribution Theory, managers (the actors) would find situational factors more important in determining effective leadership than would employees, and, employees (the observers) would consider dispositional factors more important than would managers.

Hypothesis Three.

To compare managers' self-perceptions as leaders and their subordinates' perceptions of the managers, it is expected that managers' self ratings and employees ratings of managers would be significantly different.

Chapter Four Methodology

4.1 Sample.

One purpose of this study was to compare the ratings given by managers with those of their employees. It was therefore necessary to include managers who were in a supervisory capacity. From the managers who were approached, there was a 82.5% response rate, and a 87% response rate from the employees. The total number of subjects included in the analysis were 90 managers and 135 employees. The sample was obtained from a diverse range of companies throughout Christchurch. A list of the types of organisations which participated in this study is given in Table 3.

Table 3: Organisations which participated in the study.

ORGANISATION	NUMBER OF MANAGERS
Insurance Companies	23
Banks	17
Computing Firms	11
Manufacturing Firms	24
StockBrokers	1
Travel Agents	5
Librarians	7
Government Departments	2

The reasons given by organisations for not completing the questionnaire were:

- 1. not having the required supervisory structure,
- 2. not wishing to divulge the information required in the questionnaire,
- 3. restructuring the organisational hierarchy, and
- 4. the time commitment.

These organisations did not appear to have any outstanding characteristics which separated them from the sample.

The sex distribution of the final sample is shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Composition of sample by sex.

SAMPLE	SEX		
	MALES	FEMALES	UNSPECIFEID
Managers	69(76.7%)	20(22.2%)	1(1.1%)
Employees	59(43.7%)	75(55.6%)	1(0.7%)

The subjects who participated in this study included: acquaintances of the researcher; companies recommended by other participants, and companies approached by the researcher. Where possible, several employees rated the same manager. This has given valuable information on the validity of individual ratings - whether or not the same manager was rated similarly by different employees.

4.2 Procedure.

The General or Personnel Manager of consenting companies was approached by the researcher, who then explained the purpose of the research - that is, to discover what factors managers and employees find important in effective leadership, and to discover whether there are any differences between the perceptions of the two groups. The manager approached was then asked the number of managers in that company who could fill out the questionnaire, the prerequisite being that they must hold a supervisory position. The managers were also informed of the strict confidentiality of the information obtained from the questionnaires. This was extremely important since employees rating managers had expressed anxiety regarding the revealing nature of the information. The General or Personnel Manager was then left to distribute the questionnaires to the managers involved and to arrange for those managers to further distribute the parallel questionnaires to their subordinates.

The full questionnaire took a maximum of half an hour to complete. As time is a valuable resource to managers, pressure was not applied for them to complete the questionnaires within a set time limit. The subjects were required to fill out the questionnaire which was divided into two sections. Each section contains comprehensive instructions on how they should be completed. The managers and employees were given parallel questionnaires which were comprised of Bass's Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and a section containing factors of importance in effective

leadership.

When the questionnaires were completed, the researcher explained more fully the purpose of the study. After preliminary analyses, the researcher sent a letter of appreciation which included a summary of the results, to companies who participated and other interested companies who had not participated. This letter is given in Appendix 1.

4.3 The Instrument.

The instruments used for this study were two eight page questionnaires each divided into two sections. The questionnaires were of parallel form - one designed for the manager , and the other for the employee. A short set of instructions preceded each section.

Bass's Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

1) The manager received a copy of Form MLQ-55-Revised which contains eighty questions - given in Appendix 2. The first seventy items were related to the five factors identified by Bass - charisma, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, management by exception and contingent reward. Each of these factors were measured by ten items - totalling fifty items. In the analyses, the ratings for each factor were summed and then divided by ten to obtain a mean score. The remaining twenty items concerned factors found to be independent in Bass's analyses (Bass 1985), and were therefore included but not analyzed in the present

study. Managers were requested to rate themselves on the following five point scale: 4=frequently if not always; 3=fairly often; 2=sometimes; 1=once in a while and 0= not at all, thus indicating how they would describe the frequency with which they displayed the particular behaviour.

The remaining ten items in this section included demographic data (four items); perceived effectiveness of the manager (two items); perceived effectiveness of the work unit (two items) and satisfaction with which the manager perceived him or herself (two items). Past researchers have found that the two items which measured perceived effectiveness of the leader, perceived effectiveness of the work unit and satisfaction with the leader, correlated highly within each of these factors. It was considered justified therefore to average the two items in each case. Thus the number of items were reduced from six to three.

2) Employees received a parallel form of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire - (a revised version of Form Four), using the same rating scale as on the managers' questionnaire. The employees were asked to rate the frequency with which the manager displayed each behaviour. The demographic questions also included two questions which asked the sex of both the manager and themselves. The last six items corresponded to the items in the managers' questionnaire, i.e. to perceived effectiveness of the manager, of the unit and satisfaction with the manager. Means from these scores were also obtained. This questionnaire is given in Appendix 3.

The Leadership Attribution Scale

The final part of the questionnaire attempted to identify those factors perceived as important in effective leadership. The same questionnaire was given to both managers and employees. The wording of these items was modified after a pilot questionnaire was administered to five people known to the researcher. In this case each item was rated on its preciseness and comprehensibility. The pilot questionnaire is given in Appendix 4.

Each subject was requested to rate thirteen factors from their own perspective, i.e. from their perspective as a manager or as an employee, on what factors are important in effective leadership. The following seven point scale was used: 1=extremely important; 4=moderately important; 7=not at all important. The questions included the five factors identified by Bass (1985), i.e. charisma, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, management by exception and contingent reward. These five factors represented the personality factors. Three items identified by Fiedler (1986) as Cognitive Resources, that is intelligence, job relevant knowledge or job tenure, and technical competence of the leader, were also included. These three items were the cognitive factors. Together, these eight factors, that is the personality and cognitive factors, were identified as dispositional factors. The remaining five items consisted of situational or contingent factors, as reported in the organisational literature (Fiedler 1978; Kast and Rosenzweig 1973). Items included task structure, position power, and employee support. These three items were identified as the situational

factors which constituted the factor situational control in Fiedler's Contingency Theory (1967). The item - boss stress - was also included as a situational factor, identified in Fiedler's Cognitive Resources Model as a moderator variable (Fiedler 1986). One item was also included to account for factors beyond the managers' control. This factor has been frequently used in causal attribution research as a measure of external - situational variables (Weiner 1979). This section of the questionnaire is given in Appendix 5.

Chapter Five Results

5.1 Cognitive and personality factors.

The means of the importance ratings for cognitive resources and personality factors are presented in Table 5. The personality factors consist of the five factors Bass (1985) identified in the Transformational versus Transactional Behaviour Model - charisma, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, contingent reward and management by exception. The cognitive factors consist of the three factors identified by Fiedler (1986) in his Cognitive Resources Model - intelligence, technical competence and job tenure. The final ratings for each subject were obtained from the average of the five personality factors - to obtain one personality rating, and from the average of the three cognitive factors - to obtain one cognitive rating. Important factors are rated lower.

Table 5: Mean Importance ratings for cognitive and personality factors.

ATTRIBUTION FACTORS:	SUBJECT SAMPLE	
	MANAGERS (N=89)	EMPLOYEES (N=134)
PERSONALITY	2.81 (.72)	2.77 (.79)
COGNITIVE	3.34 (.68)	2.87 (.82)

Standard Deviations given in brackets.
Ratings on 7-point scale: 1=extremely important; 4=moderately important;
7=not at all important.

From the means presented in Table 5, it can be seen that both managers and employees rated personality factors as more important than cognitive factors. A 2 (subject sample) \times 2 (attribution) Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) with repeated measures on the second factor and with unequal cell size was performed on the data. The results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: ANOVA of importance ratings for cognitive and personality factors.

SOURCES OF VARIANCE	SS	df	MS	F	Sign. of F
Between Effect - Subject Sample (managers vs employees)	7.17	1	7.17	9.10	.003
Within Effect - Attributions (cognitive vs personality)	10.75	1	10.75	27.74	.000
Interactions - Subject Sample and Attributions	5.16	1	5.16	13.33	.000

Significant main effects were found between managers and employees ($F(1,221)=9.10, p<.003$), and for the attribution factors, personality and cognitive ($F(1,221)=27.74, p<.000$). An interaction effect was also found to be significant ($F(1,221)=13.33, p<.000$). To reveal the direction of the relationships between these factors, a t-test was conducted. The results indicated that personality factors were equally important to both managers and to employees, that is, there was no significant difference between them ($t(221)=0.38, p<.703$). Managers found personality factors more important than cognitive factors ($t(88)=6.28, p<.000$). Employees overall however,

viewed cognitive and personality factors as being more important than did managers. Hypothesis One, that is, that managers and employees would rate cognitive resources as less important than personality factors, was therefore only partially supported by the managers' ratings. The mean importance ratings and t-test statistics for the individual factors are given in Table 7. One personality factor - management by exception, was rated significantly different by managers and employees ($t(218)=2.84, p<.005$) and two of the cognitive factors - intelligence and job tenure, were also rated significantly different by the subject sample, ($t(220)=3.84, p<.000$) and ($t(220)=2.99, p<.003$) respectively. Managers and employees however, rated the other factors similarly.

Table 7: Mean importance ratings and t-test statistics for the individual factors of personality and cognitive attribution factors.

Attribution Factors	Subject Sample		t-test
	Manager	Employee	
Personality			
Charisma	2.73 (1.16)	2.68 (1.33)	0.40
Individual Consideration	2.10 (1.01)	2.33 (1.29)	-1.46
Intellectual Stimulation	2.93 (1.31)	2.84 (1.34)	0.44
Contingent Reward	2.32 (1.25)	2.59 (1.47)	-1.48
Management by exception	3.94 (1.37)	3.33 (1.54)	2.84 *
Cognitive			
Intelligence	2.98 (1.01)	2.41 (1.19)	3.84 *
Technical Competence	1.64 (0.97)	1.44 (1.56)	1.56
Job Tenure	5.43 (1.48)	4.79 (2.99)	2.99 *

*Significant at the 0.005 level
Standard deviations given in brackets
Ratings on 7-point scale: 1=extremely important; 4=moderately important; 7=not at all important.

A closer look at the means for the cognitive resource factors showed that job tenure had been rated as the least important - means were 5.42 and 4.80

for managers and employees respectively, whereas, intelligence and technical competence were rated as very to extremely important - means were: for intelligence, 2.99 and 2.42 for managers and employees respectively; and for technical competence, 1.64 and 1.45 for managers and employees respectively. These means are given in Table 8.

Table 8: Mean importance ratings for cognitive resources.

ATTRIBUTION FACTORS:	SUBJECT SAMPLE	
	MANAGERS	EMPLOYEES
INTELLIGENCE	2.99 (1.01)	2.42 (1.19)
JOB TENURE	5.42 (1.48)	4.80 (1.63)
TECHNICAL COMPETENCE	1.64 (0.97)	1.45 (0.79)

Standard Deviations given in brackets.
Ratings on 7-point scale: 1=extremely important; 4=moderately important;
7=not at all important.

Job relevant experience concerns the experience obtained on the job, gained through job tenure (Fiedler 1986). Compared to the other two cognitive resources, intelligence and technical competence, job tenure does not seem to possess the characteristics necessary to be included as either a cognitive resource or as a personality factor, that is, it is not a cognitive ability or personal attribute. It also appears that both managers and employees viewed this factor differently from intelligence and technical

competence. It is therefore considered justifiable to remove this factor from further analyses. A reanalysis of this new cognition factor, consisting of intelligence and technical competence, and the personality factor was carried out. The means for these factors are given in Table 9.

Table 9: Means of importance ratings for new cognition and personality factors.

ATTRIBUTION FACTORS:	SUBJECT SAMPLE	
	MANAGERS (N=88)	EMPLOYEES (N=132)
NEW COGNITION	2.31 (.80)	1.93 (.80)
PERSONALITY	2.81 (.72)	2.77 (.79)

Standard Deviations given in brackets.
Rating on 7-point scale: 1=extremely important; 4=moderately important;
7=not at all important.

These means suggest that without the third factor, job tenure, the new cognition factor was perceived by both managers and employees, 2.31 and 1.93 respectively, as being more important than were personality factors, 2.81 amd 2.77 respectively - a finding which was the reverse of the earlier analyses. Table 10 illustrates the summary data obtained from a 2 x 2 ANOVA.

Table 10: ANOVA of importance ratings of new cognition and personality factors.

SOURCES OF VARIANCE	SS	df	MS	F	Sign of F
Between Effect - Subject Sample (Managers vs employees)	5.25	1	5.25	6.50	.011
Within Effect - Attributions (Newcognition vs personality)	47.76	1	47.76	116.91	.000
Interactions - Subject Sample and Attributions	2.63	1	2.63	6.43	.012

Both main effects, that is, comparison between managers and employees ($F(1,218)=6.50, p<.011$), and within the attribution factors - new cognition and personality, ($F(1,218)=116.91, p<.000$) were significant. The interaction effect ($F(1,218)=6.43, p<.012$) was also significant. A t-test analysis was performed to reveal the direction of the interaction. The new cognition factor was significantly more important than personality factors, as perceived by both managers and employees ($t(219)=18.14, p<.000$). Contrary to hypothesis one, when cognitive factors only included intelligence and technical competence, both subject samples considered cognitive factors to be more important than personality factors in determining effective leadership. As already established in the previous analyses, personality factors were found to be of equal importance to both managers and employees, and overall, employees found the new cognition factors to be significantly more important than did managers ($t(218)=3.46, p<.001$).

5.2 Dispositional versus Situational Factors.

The means of importance ratings for dispositional and situational factors are presented in Table 11. The dispositional factor consists of the five personality factors - charisma, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, contingent reward and management by exception (Bass 1985), and the three cognitive resources - intelligence, technical competence and job tenure (Fiedler 1986). The situational factor consists of - structure of the task, position power, support by employees (Fiedler 1967), boss stress (Fiedler 1986) and factors beyond the manager's control, for example, luck.

Table 11: Mean importance ratings of dispositional and situational factors.

ATTRIBUTION FACTORS:	SUBJECT SAMPLE	
	MANAGERS (N=89)	EMPLOYEES (N=134)
DISPOSITIONAL	3.04 (0.62)	2.82 (0.64)
SITUATIONAL	3.47 (0.79)	3.26 (0.75)

Standard Deviations given in brackets.
Ratings on 7-point scale: 1=extremely important; 4=moderately important; 7=not at all important.

From the means presented in Table 11, it can be seen that both managers and employees rated dispositional factors, 3.04 and 2.82 respectively, as more important than situational factors, 3.47 and 3.26 respectively. A 2 (subject sample) x 2 (attribution) analysis of variance with repeated

measures on the second factor and with unequal cell size was performed on the data. The results of this are reported in Table 12.

Table 12: ANOVA of importance ratings for dispositional and situational factors.

SOURCES OF VARIANCE	SS	df	MS	F	Sign. of F
Between Effect - Subject Sample (managers vs employees)	4.99	1	4.99	7.84	.006
Within Effect - Attributions (dispositional vs situational)	20.14	1	20.14	58.14	.000
Interactions - Subject Sample and Attributions	0.01	1	0.01	0.03	.863

The main effects for the between factors (managers and employees) ($F(1,221)=7.84, p<.006$), and attribution factors (dispositional and situational), ($F(1,221)=58.14, p<.000$) were significant. However, the interaction effect was insignificant ($F(1,221)=.03$). This confirmed the preliminary interpretation made from the means, that is, that managers and employees both viewed dispositional factors as being more important. T-test analyses have been carried out to confirm the direction of the significant main effects. There was no significant difference between manager and employee ratings of situational factors ($t(221)=1.97, p<.054$), but within the subject sample, that is, between managers and employees, employees considered the dispositional factors to be more important than

did managers ($t(221)2.64, p<.009$). Partial support was given to Hypothesis two, that is, managers would find situational factors more important than would employees, and employees would find dispositional factors more important than would managers, since employees rated the dispositional factors as more important than the situational factors. However, managers' ratings did not support this hypothesis, that is, contrary to predictions that they would consider situational factors as being more important than dispositional factors, they rated the dispositional factors as being more important than the situational factors.

A reanalysis of the dispositional and situational factors was also required, with job tenure eliminated (see discussion in result section 5.1). Table 13 gives the means for the new dispositional and situational factors.

Table 13: Mean importance ratings for new dispositional and situational factors.

ATTRIBUTION FACTORS:	SUBJECT SAMPLE	
	MANAGERS (N=88)	EMPLOYEES (N=132)
NEW DISPOSITIONAL	2.57 (.63)	2.53 (.64)
SITUATIONAL	3.47 (.79)	3.26 (.75)

Standard Deviations given in brackets.
Ratings on 7-point scale: 1=extremely important; 4=moderately important; 7=not at all important.

An examination of the means revealed the same relationship in this

analysis as previously, that is, both managers and employees rated personality factors as more important than situational factors, but the relationship was now stronger. The ANOVA results are reported in Table 14.

Table 14: ANOVA of new dispositional and situational factors.

SOURCES OF VARIANCE	SS	df	MS	F	Sign. of F
Between Effect - Subject Sample (managers vs employees)	5.40	1	5.40	8.76	.003
Within Effect - Attributions (new dispositional vs situaional)	86.57	1	86.57	233.71	.000
Interactions - Subject Sample and Attributions	0.00	1	0.00	0.00	.958

Again significant main effects were reported between managers and employees ($F(1,218)=8.76, p<.003$), and with the attribution factors - new dispositional and situational, ($F(1,218)=233.71, p<.000$). The interaction effect was again insignificant, but even more so. The difference between managers' and employees' ratings of the new dispositional factors was found to be less significant than previously. Hypothesis two was still only partially supported by the employees' importance ratings of the dispositional factors, and unsupported by the managers' ratings. Table 15 gives the mean importance ratings and t-test statisits for the individual factors of the dispositional and situational attribution factors. The three

dispositional factors - management by exception ($t(218)=2.84, p<.005$), intelligence ($t(220)=3.84, p<.000$) and job tenure ($t(220)=2.99, p<.003$), differ significantly between managers and employees in their ratings of importance. All other dispositional and situational factors are similarly rated by both managers and employees.

Table 15: Mean importance ratings and t-test statistics for the individual factors of dispositional and situational attributional factors.

Attribution Factors	Subject Sample		t-test
Dispositional	Manager	Employee	
Charisma	2.73(1.16)	2.68(1.33)	0.40
Individual Consideration	2.10(1.10)	2.33(1.29)	-1.46
Intellectual Stimulation	2.93(1.31)	2.84(1.34)	0.44
Contingent Reward	2.32(1.25)	2.59(1.47)	-1.48
Management by exception	3.94(1.37)	3.33(1.54)	2.84 *
Intelligence	2.98(1.01)	2.41(1.19)	3.84 *
Technical Competence	1.64(0.97)	1.44(0.78)	1.56
Job Tenure	5.43(1.48)	4.79(1.63)	2.99 *
Situational			
Task Structure	2.38(1.32)	2.44(1.31)	-0.38
Position Power	3.63(1.42)	3.51(1.70)	0.54
Support by employees	2.08(1.17)	1.79(1.00)	1.91
Boss Stress	3.61(1.58)	3.24(1.74)	1.74
Luck	5.58(1.39)	5.31(1.65)	1.32

*Significant at the 0.005 level

Standard deviations given in brackets

Ratings on 7-point scale: 1=extremely important; 4=moderately important;

7=not at all important.

Because of the strong influence one factor, that is , job tenure, seemed to have in determining the direction of the relationships in the results, the researcher considered it necessary to report the means of all factors included in the importance ratings to demonstrate the order in which

managers and employees perceived factors in effective leadership. These means are presented in Tables 16 and 17 respectively.

Table 16: Means of importance ratings for all factors rated by managers.

FACTORS RATED BY MANAGERS IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE. (1=extremely important; 4=moderately important; 7=not at all important)	
FACTOR	MEAN
1. Technical Competence (cogn)	1.64 (0.97)
2. Support by Employees (sit)	2.08 (1.17)
3. Individual Consideration (pers)	2.10 (1.01)
4. Contingent Reward (pers)	2.32 (1.25)
5. Structure of Task (sit)	2.38 (1.32)
6. Charisma (pers)	2.73 (1.16)
7. Intellectual Stimulation (pers)	2.93 (1.31)
8. Intelligence (cogn)	2.98 (1.01)
9. Boss Stress (sit)	3.61 (1.58)
10. Power of Boss (sit)	3.63 (1.42)
11. Management by Exception (pers)	3.94 (1.37)
12. Job Tenure (cogn)	5.43 (1.48)
13. Luck (sit)	5.58 (1.39)

Table 16 and 17 show that the first eight factors rated below 3, that is, rated as extremely important, although ordered differently, were the same, for managers and employees. The first three factors were rated similarly by managers and employees - technical competence, 1.64 and 1.44 respectively, support by employees, 2.08 and 1.79 respectively, and individual

consideration, 2.10 and 2.33 respectively.

Table 17: Means of importance ratings for all factors rated by employees.

FACTORS RATED BY EMPLOYEES IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE. (1=extremely important ;4=moderately important; 7=not at all)	
FACTOR	MEAN
1. Technical Competence (cogn)	1.44 (0.78)
2. Support by Employees (sit)	1.79 (1.00)
3. Individual Consideration (pers)	2.33 (1.29)
4. Intelligence (cogn)	2.41 (1.19)
5. Structure of Task (sit)	2.44 (1.31)
6. Contingent Reward (pers)	2.59 (1.47)
7. Charisma (pers)	2.68 (1.33)
8. Intellectual Stimulation (pers)	2.84 (1.34)
9. Boss Stress (sit)	3.24 (1.47)
10. Management by Exception (pers)	3.33 (1.54)
11. Power of Boss (sit)	3.51 (1.70)
12. Job Tenure (cogn)	4.79 (1.63)
13. Luck (sit)	5.31 (1.65)

In examining the cognitive resource factors, technical competence was rated as the most important factor overall. Intelligence, although rated highly by both subject samples, was considered as more important by employees, 2.41, than by managers, 2.98, ($t(220)=3.84, p<.000$). Job tenure was rated as the twelfth most important out of thirteen factors. This verified the exclusion of this factor from the Cognitive Resources Model for

analysis, as it has not been considered to be similar to the cognitive abilities - intelligence and technical competence. The factors rated above 3, that is, boss stress, management by exception, power of the boss, job tenure and luck, were the same for both managers and employees and were not considered as important in effective leadership.

5.3 A comparison of manager and employee perceptions.

In the ninety managers sampled, forty five of these managers were rated by more than one employee. Each manager - employee pair was treated as a separate dyad. This gave a total of one hundred and thirty five manager - employee dyads. Table 18 records the means of the employees' perceptions and manager self ratings of transformational and transactional behaviour. The higher the number, the more frequently the behaviour was perceived as occurring.

Table 18: Mean employee perceptions and manager self ratings of transformational and transactional behaviour.

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR:	SUBJECT SAMPLE	
	MANAGERS (N=90)	EMPLOYEES (N=135)
TRANSFORMATIONAL	2.91 (.40)	2.46 (.69)
TRANSACTIONAL	2.19 (.45)	1.97 (.52)

Standard Deviations given in brackets.
Ratings on 5-point scale: 4=freq. if not always; 3=fairly often; 2=sometimes; 1=once in a while; 0=not at all.

Both managers and employees perceived more transformational behaviour as occurring than transactional behaviour. Managers also tended to rate him/herself as displaying both classes of behaviour more frequently than the employee perceived them. A breakdown of the transformational and transactional behaviour into the means and the t-tests of the individual factors identified by Bass (1985), is given in Table 19.

Table 19: Means and t-test statistics of transformational and transactional behaviour as perceived by managers and employees.

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR:	SUBJECT SAMPLE		t-test
	MANAGERS (N=90)	EMPLOYEES (N=135)	
CHARISMA	2.71 (.53)	2.45 (.92)	2.77 *
INDIVIDUAL CONSIDERATION	3.17 (.39)	2.55 (.74)	8.91 *
INTELLECTUAL STIMULATION	2.84 (.48)	2.41 (.68)	5.79 *
MANAGEMENT BY EXCEPTION	2.14 (.46)	2.22 (.60)	-0.81
CONTINGENT REWARD	2.25 (.61)	1.72 (.73)	6.00 *

*Significant at the .006 level.

Standard deviations given in brackets

Ratings on 5-point scale: 4=freq. if not always; 3=fairly often; 2=sometimes;
1=once in a while; 0=not at all.

The first three factors are in the category of transformational behaviour, and the last two in the category of transactional behaviour. Managers

perceived the three factors of transformational behaviour as occurring more frequently than did employees - charisma ($t(223)=2.72, p<.006$), individual consideration ($t(223)=8.91, p<.000$) and intellectual stimulation ($t(223)=5.79, p<.000$), with individual consideration occurring the most, 3.17. Employees also perceived individual consideration, 2.55, as occurring most frequently. Management by exception was the only factor rated by employees as occurring more frequently than was rated by managers, although not significantly so ($t(223)=-0.81$). Correlations between managers' and employee perceptions were calculated to see whether their perception of the manager corresponded. The correlations for transformational and transactional behaviour and the individual factors are given in Tables 20 and 21 respectively.

Table 20: Correlations between manager and employee perception of the frequency of transformational and transactional behaviour.

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR:	CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MANAGERS AND EMPLOYEES	SIGNIFICANCE (p)
TRANSFORMATIONAL	0.18	0.02
TRANSACTIONAL	0.18	0.02

Managers N=135; Employees N=135.

Table 20 shows a low but significant correlation between both managers' and employees' perceptions of transformational ($r=0.18$) and transactional

behaviour ($r=0.18$). A break-down of these factors, is given in Table 21.

Table 21: Correlations between manager and employee perceptions of the frequency of the factors of transformational and transactional behaviour.

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR:	CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MANAGERS AND EMPLOYEES	SIGNIFICANCE (p)
CHARISMA	0.14	0.05
INDIVIDUAL CONSIDERATION	0.12	0.09
INTELLECTUAL STIMULATION	0.32	0.00
CONTINGENT REWARD	0.15	0.04
MANAGEMENT BY EXCEPTION	0.08	0.18

Managers N=135; Employees N=135.

Table 21 shows that intellectual stimulation had the highest correlation ($r=0.32$) between the subject samples. Contingent reward and charisma were the next most significant, obtaining correlations of 0.15 and 0.14 respectively. Individual consideration and management by exception were the two factors with insignificant correlations, 0.12 and 0.08 respectively. Hypothesis three, that is, managers' self ratings and employees' perceptions of the manager would be significantly different, was not supported for the composite scores of transformational and transactional

behaviour, presented in Table 20, but was supported for two out of the five individual factors, that is, by individual consideration and management by exception.

Analyses were also carried out on the correlations between transformational and transactional factors and the effectiveness of the leader, the unit and satisfaction with the leader, as perceived by managers and employees. Table 22 and 23 summarizes these correlations of the transformational and transactional behaviours and the individual factors respectively.

Table 22: Correlations of perceived effectiveness of work unit and leader and of satisfaction with transformational and transactional behaviour.

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR:	RATING BY MANAGER AND EMPLOYEE					
	EFFECTIVENESS OF UNIT		EFFECTIVENESS OF LEADER		SATISFACTION WITH LEADER	
	MGER	EMEE	MGER	EMEE	MGER	EMEE
TRANSFORMATIONAL	0.48	0.42	0.54	0.63	0.65	0.77
TRANSACTIONAL	0.38	0.24	0.34	0.32	0.35	0.27

The correlations shown in Table 22 were all highly significant ($p<.000$). However the correlations were higher for the transformational factors compared with the transactional factors, indicating that both employees and managers were more satisfied and rated the manager as being more

effective when the manager was Transformational rather than Transactional. These results were similar to the findings of Bass (1985). Table 23 gives the correlations for the individual factors of transformational and transactional behaviour.

Table 23: Correlations of perceived effectiveness of work unit and of leader, and satisfaction with factors of transformational and transactional behaviour.

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR:	CORRELATIONS BETWEEN FACTORS AND RATINGS					
	EFFECTIVENESS OF UNIT		EFFECTIVENESS OF LEADER		SATISFACTION WITH LEADER	
	MGER	EM'EE	MGER	EM'EE	MGER	EM'EE
CHARISMA	0.47	0.42	0.47	0.65	0.69	0.78
INDIVIDUAL CONSIDERATION	0.33	0.39	0.45	0.55	0.44	0.72
INTELLECTUAL STIMULATION	0.37	0.30	0.45	0.47	0.52	0.53
CONTINGENT REWARD	0.38	0.29	0.34	0.40	0.37	0.47
MANAGEMENT BY EXCEPTION	0.25	0.07*	0.22	0.06*	0.22	0.11*

*Insignificant correlation

Again, except where indicated, all correlations were significant ($p < .002$). The highest correlations were found for charisma - as rated by both managers and employees. Bass reported similar findings - charisma being almost synonymous with satisfaction and effectiveness (Bass 1985, p219). High correlations were also reported for individual consideration and

intellectual stimulation - the other two factors of transformational leadership. Contingent reward, although a transactional behaviour, was also significantly correlated with effectiveness and satisfaction. This also replicated Bass's findings (Bass 1985, p219). The low significance of the correlations found with management by exception was also expected, again supporting Bass's findings.

Chapter Six Discussion

6.1 Cognitive and personality factors.

The findings of this research did not support Hypothesis one, that is, that the managers and employees would rate cognitive resources as less important than the non-cognitive personality factors. The initial findings revealed that while managers considered personality factors to be more important than cognitive factors, employees considered these two factors to be of equal importance. However, a reanalysis with the cognitive factor - job tenure - excluded, resulted in both managers and employees rating the new cognitive factor, consisting of intelligence and technical competence, as being more important than the personality factors. This result did not support Hypothesis one. A tentative conclusion may be drawn from the result obtained. Since intelligence and technical competence were perceived by managers and employees as important factors in effective leadership, the lack of emphasis on these factors in the leadership literature has not been justified.

This conclusion lends support to Fiedler's Cognitive Resource Model (1986), as the reintroduction of the cognitive factors - intelligence and technical competence - into the leadership literature has been demonstrated by the results of this study, to be of considerable importance. Fiedler's discussion on the Cognitive Resources Model has particularly concentrated on intelligence. His work has demonstrated the significance

intelligence plays in leadership under certain contingent conditions. Fiedler demonstrated that the leaders' intellectual resources were utilized under low stress conditions, when employees were supportive, and when the leader was directive. (Csoka 1974; Blades 1976; Blades and Fiedler 1976; Bons and Fiedler 1976; Fiedler, O'Brien and Ilgen 1969). Although intelligence has not been included in the recent leadership literature, researchers from other fields of study have continued to recognize intelligence as an important factor for study, for example, in some fields of personnel selection (Aylward 1985), in the use of intelligence in employment (Gottfredson 1986), and in the introduction of new constructs of intelligence (Virmani 1984). Intelligence is therefore, still prominent in other organisational literature, supporting the conclusion that its omission from more recent leadership studies has not been justified.

Experience has also been demonstrated by Fiedler and his colleagues to be important in highly stressful conditions (Fiedler and Leister 1977; Fiedler, Potter, Zais and Knowlton 1978; Potter and Fiedler 1981; Zais and Fiedler 1973(cited in Fiedler, 1986). Experience became an important asset to the manager when stress with his/her superior was high. It served as a substitute for creative thinking when the ability to function intellectually was seriously curtailed by stress and anxiety. Yet both managers and employees in this study considered job tenure as being unimportant in effective leadership. The lack of importance given to this factor in the results obtained in the present research, questions the inclusion of job

tenure in Fiedler's Cognitive Model. More research is therefore needed to discover its actual role in leadership effectiveness.

The role played by the third factor of the Cognitive Resource Model, technical competence, has not been discussed by Fiedler. In this study, technical competence has been rated by both managers and employees as the most important factor. Bass (1981) has recorded that technical competence in leader effectiveness has been noted in many surveys, for example, Penner, Malone, Coughlin and Herz (1973). Yet this factor has not been emphasized in the more recent theories and research.

Feedback has been obtained from managers concerning the preliminary results in this study. Some managers have expressed their surprise concerning the importance given to technical competence. These managers proposed, that with the constant technological advances occurring today, the new breed of manager has tended to surround him or herself with technological experts, employed to advise the managers of the best possible ways to solve problems that may arise. Consequently, it is not essential for managers to be technically competent to be effective leaders. And yet, the managers and employees who participated in this study considered that technical competence by managers was extremely important. It is, in fact, identified as the most important factor. An examination of the typology proposed by Katz (1955) and Mann (1965) could explain these divergent views. They have proposed a three skill

typology for managers, one of which was technical skills. Katz and Mann defined technical skills as knowledge about methods, processes, procedures and techniques for conducting a specialized activity and the ability to use tools and operate equipment related to that activity. The other two skills were human relation skills and conceptual skills. Each of these have been described as relevant, according to the role requirements of the manager, but the relative importance of these skills have depended on the leadership situation.

Katz (1955) and Mann (1965) have proposed that the appropriate skill mix depended in part on the manager's position in the authority hierarchy of the organisation. The technical skills were usually more important for low level managers, who were mainly responsible for implementing policy and maintaining the workflow within the existing organisational structure. Middle managers required an equal mix of the three skills and top level managers required some technical knowledge, but conceptual skills were most important for making strategic decisions. Mann has also noted that, depending on the developmental stage of the organisation, the relative importance of the skills would vary; for example, in times of rapid change and transition technical skills would become most important. A look at the sample of this study, has revealed that 50% of the managers were from the lower levels of management, 27.8% were from middle management and 22.2% were from the top level. Since the majority of managers were from lower levels of management, technical competence

may have been over-rated by these 'technical managers'. The managers who have expressed their surprise at this result, were, in fact, general or top level managers. Their reactions supported the above skill typology. However, because technical competence has been rated so highly, it needs to be addressed in the literature.

Although the personality factors included in this study were rated as being less important than the cognitive factors, they were still rated highly. These results suggest that there is also a need for the continuing study of personality factors. Historically there has been a desire to discover the personality traits of effective leaders (Mann 1959; Stogdill 1948,1974), and the omission of cognitive factors from the leadership literature has led to the concentration of research on the non-cognitive personality factors. Recent researchers have continued to strive to identify the personality factors in effective leadership (Haylock 1986; Khursid 1984; King 1985; Kovach 1986; Singh 1985). Although personality factors in this study were rated as important, they were not considered as the exclusive contributors to effective leadership. Unless cognitive abilities are included in research, a more comprehensive understanding of which factors effective leaders possess, may never be realized.

6.2 Dispositional versus situational factors.

The second hypothesis, that is, that managers would find situational factors more important than would employees, and, employees would find

dispositional factors more important than would managers, was only partially supported by the data. The results of the analyses indicated that both managers and employees considered that dispositional factors were more important than situational factors. The observers', or employees' perceptions supported this hypothesis, that is, they rated the dispositional factors as more important than the situational factors, but it appears that the actors, the managers, attributed their behaviour to their own dispositions rather than to their situations, as Attribution Theory would have predicted. It would seem therefore that both managers and employees in this study held leadership schemas in which the leaders' qualities were of paramount importance. Specifically, the thirteen factors rated in this study were perceived similarly by managers and employees, with the exception of management by exception, intelligence and job tenure. These three factors however, differed only slightly in their importance as rated by managers and employees - 0.61, 0.57, and 0.64 respectively. The results obtained then, indicated that managers and employees held similar leadership schemas of the characteristics of effective leaders. Thus, the results were not biased in the direction of the perspectives of either actor or observer. However, in retrospect, the present findings may have been due to the structure of the questionnaire. Managers were not required to rate their own behaviour in this section, but to rate factors in terms of their importance in effective leadership, from their own perspective. These ratings may have had little relevance to their own leadership behaviour and therefore they may not have perceived

these factors from the perspective of an actor, but rather that of an observer. This could explain the importance given to dispositional factors by both managers and employees - both groups rating these factors as equally important in determining effective leadership. In terms of the underlying cognitive structure of leadership schema, the present results would indicate that managers and employees have rather similar preconceptions about what makes effective leadership.

Analysis of individual factors revealed that two situational factors were also rated highly. These were 'support by employees' and 'structure of the task', - two situational variables discussed in Fiedler's Contingency Model (1969), where they act as modifiers. Since both managers and employees rated these factors highly, due emphasis should also be placed on them when examining leadership effectiveness.

It would seem that the results from these two sections support an interactive approach in which personality, cognitive and situational factors are not discrete, but rather seem to combine to influence leadership effectiveness.

6.3 A comparison of manager and employee perceptions.

Hypothesis three, that managers' self ratings and employee perceptions of managers would be significantly different, was only partially supported by

the present data. Overall, the results for the composite Transformational and Transactional Behaviour scores indicated that managers' self ratings and employee perceptions of managers behaviour were similar. The results of the individual factors, however, were not so clear cut. Three of the five individual factors corresponded, that is, the three factors charisma, intellectual stimulation and contingent reward, were similarly rated by managers and employees. This indicated that for these three factors, managers and employees perceived the manager's behaviour similarly. The two factors, individual consideration and management by exception however, did not correspond. This indicated that the managers and employees perceived the behaviour of the managers differently for these two factors. Because these two factors were not similarly rated by managers and employees, it is important to explore the possible explanations why. Researchers using other leadership scales, for example Fleishman's LBDQ, have also found little agreement between the behaviour described in superior's self reports, and the descriptions by their subordinates (Sadler and Hofstede 1972; Vroom and Yetton 1973). The lack of correspondence between manager's self ratings and employees' perception of the manager, raises questions about the relative validity of the measures. If two parallel types of measures produce different results, for example, Bass's parallel forms of the Multifactor Questionnaire for managers and employees, it is necessary to ask which is more valid or more free from perceptual bias and which set of measures comes closer to describing the actual leadership behaviour.

One explanation has been offered by Sadler and Hofstede. They concluded,

while employees' perceptions thus do not resemble managers' self perceptions, they do resemble closely the way managers perceive their own manager....The hierarchical difference appears to breed a perceptual difference. If as a manager, you want to know how you are seen by your subordinates, do not try to look in the mirror. Turn about 180 degrees and look at your own boss. (p58)

This notion suggested that the divergent results may be caused by the employee's projection of the perceptions he/she has of him or herself onto the manager being rated, thereby rating the manager as if he/she was rating him/her self. This possible explanation cannot be explored here, as self ratings of employees were not gathered, and therefore the projection of the employee's perception of him/her self cannot be compared to the ratings of the manager. However, this proposition should be considered in future research.

Another possible explanation for the lack of observed correlation of individual consideration and management by exception, could be related to the differential salience of the information available to the actor - the manager, and to the observer - the employee. (Jones and Nisbett 1972). These theorists proposed that behaviour to the observer, or employee, was figural against the ground of the situation, whereas for the actor or the manager, it was the situational cues that were figural. This relates to hypothesis two which dealt with dispositional and situational factors. It has

been suggested that the actor was more aware of the factors that influence his or her behaviour, and was therefore more likely to rate the behaviour more accurately than was the observer. This explanation again attributes the possible bias of the results to the employee.

In any case, the lack of correspondence for two of the individual factors, makes it mandatory to avoid treating Bass's Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire for managers and employees, as equivalent or to be used as substitutes for one another. Because leader - subordinate relationships are affected by subordinate perceptions of the leader behaviour and intentions, as well as the leader's own perceptions, both sets of data can potentially help the manager to gain a better understanding of the expected effects of his or her behaviour, and should both be used. The results of this study therefore, bring into question the validity of Bass's and other researchers' findings which involve parallel measures. Manager's self ratings and employee perception's of the manager should not be used as substitutes for one another. To generalise across studies, similar samples should be used. It is therefore important that future research which involves ratings of behaviour, should take into consideration the different perspectives which may exist, and use the appropriate sample.

However, this present research has also supported Bass's findings. Higher correlations were reported by both managers and employees regarding satisfaction with the leader and perceived effectiveness of the leader and the

unit, with transformational leadership rather than with transactional leadership. This supported Bass's findings and has given strength to the Transformational versus Transactional Theory, especially concerning the validity of the concept, transformational leadership.

6.4 Limitations

Although the findings of this research were fairly clear cut, it is necessary to acknowledge the limitations of this study.

Firstly, a factor that may have limited the generalizability of the results concerns preconceptions of leadership. As previously mentioned, Eden and Leviatan (1975) and Rush, Thomas and Lord (1977) have proposed the concept of Implicit Leadership Theories. These researchers asserted that individuals have implicit theories or stereotypes about leader behaviour that severely constrain the accuracy of leader descriptions. Rush et al further purported that,

completing a questionnaire describing leader behavior requires a complex sequence of information processing ... - exposure to stimulus behavior, selective attention to certain aspects of the behavior, encoding and storage of behaviors attended to, and recall of the stored information when responding to the questionnaire...Raters rely heavily on stereotypes and implicit theories to reduce the amount of information processing required in perceiving and understanding the behavior of others. (p105)

Mischel (1973) suggested that as a consequence of this, personality traits,

may be more a ramification of the structure imposed by the perceiver than a reflection of the covariance among actual behaviors. (cited in Rush et al, 1977 p105)

Lord, De Vader and Alliger (1986), in a meta-analysis of the leadership traits researched by Stogdill (1948) and Mann (1959), suggested that some traits, for example intelligence, may be important predictors of leadership perceptions. Possession of these traits by individuals may lead to the perception of that person as being a leader. Hollander and Julian (1969) contended that leaders emerge in group situations by fitting the shared conceptions of the followers. The followers thereby allow the individual to lead when the individual matches the followers' ideas of what a good leader should be like.

In relation to the findings of the present research, the respondents of the questionnaires may have already held a preconception about what makes an effective leader. If the factors which were named in the questionnaire corresponded to that individual's existing schema, then the factor would have been rated as important in leadership and presumably the leader would have been rated as effective by the employee. The ideas presented here also question the reality of the five leadership factors identified by Bass, which were originally derived from descriptions by subordinates. If these

descriptions were solely conceptual, they would have revealed more about the perceiver's organisational system and leadership constructs than about actual leadership behaviour in the organisation.

Therefore, a perceptual bias may exist which taints the ratings made by the employee and manager, of the manager's actual behaviour. Awareness of this potential bias is important for future research. The a priori nature of this study, using a closed - ended design questionnaire, and an established number of factors to be rated, did not allow the researcher to discover the existing schemas of the individuals who participated. The use of an open - ended questionnaire would have improved the design, allowing for the preconceptions, if any, of the subjects to be recognised and the factors that the individuals perceived as important to be included. The discovery of whether these schemas have any influence on the ratings of manager behaviour may then be monitored.

Secondly a criticism can be made of the composition of the sample of managers gathered in the study. The design would have been improved had there been an equal number of managers from each hierarchical level, that is, low, middle or top level managers, to take account of the different perspectives of leadership that may exist concerning the importance of the three skills Katz (1955) and Mann (1965) identified - technical skills, human relations skills and conceptual skills.

Thirdly a criticism may be made of the method used to collect the data. Some managers selected subordinates to complete the questionnaires on which they were rated as manager. As Heller (1971) pointed out, responses of subordinates that are chosen, may not be representative of the responses of the other subordinates. However, the present research obtained ratings from several different subordinates in forty - five of the ninety cases. These have been treated as separate dyads in the analysis. Additional analysis in which the ratings of different subordinates of the same manager were compared, could have been informative. This was felt to be unnecessary for the present research, as individual perceptions of the manager was considered to be the main concern. However, this additional analysis should be explored in future research.

6.5 Future Research Recommendations.

Several recommendations can be made for future research, based on the findings of this study.

1. The importance with which the cognitive resources - technical competence and intelligence were rated, highlights the need to include these factors in future theories and research. The role which job tenure plays also needs to be explored. However, although the Cognitive Resources Model has justifiably reintroduced cognitive factors into the leadership literature, the inclusion of job tenure as a cognitive resource is questionable.

The researcher therefore considers that the Cognitive Resources Model requires modification with regard to this factor. Future research should consider intelligence, technical competence and job tenure as separate entities rather than discussing the composite factor - cognitive resources. Research should aim at exploring each factor's role in leadership effectiveness, and under which conditions these factors are most important. However, the importance placed on these cognitive factors should not exclude the study of other factors. Personality and situational factors have also been perceived as important, and should therefore be suitably acknowledged in the literature. It would seem that an interactive approach is the most viable perspective for future study.

2. The nature of the present research has highlighted the need to explore perceptual biases which may exist. Future research needs to take into account the different perspectives, that is from an actor's or an observer's perspective; or of the perspectives from different levels of the authority hierarchy - low, middle or top level managers. Ratings of behaviour should be gathered from one source, or if from several sources, for example, from managers or from employees, these ratings should not be substituted for one another, but used in conjunction with one another, giving the researcher a wealth of information about different perceptual influences. Similarly, different perceptual influences could be gauged through a number of subordinates rating the same manager and their perception of the manager being compared. The discussion of implicit

leadership theories has also highlighted an important source of potential biases. It is necessary for future leadership researchers to acknowledge the existence of preconceived stereotypes which may determine the characteristics a leader should possess in order to be perceived as effective. The use of an open ended questionnaire would allow the existing schema of the individual to be captured and the influence it has to be monitored. The concept of implicit leadership theories can be generalised to other research areas where behaviour ratings are gathered. Researchers should be aware of the possible influence raters' preconceptions may have on ratings.

3. Although the research supporting Bass's Transformational versus Transactional Theory has been examined critically in this study, the findings of the present research has also lent support to Bass's Theory - both managers and employees were more satisfied and perceived the leader and unit to be more effective with transformational leadership rather than with transactional leadership. Bass's Theory therefore, appears sound and warrants further research which should take into account the potential biases considered in this discussion.

6.6 Implications.

The results of this study suggest a number of practical implications.

1. The findings indicated that the cognitive resources - intelligence and

technical competence - were perceived as being important in effective leadership by both managers and employees. Therefore, emphasis should be accorded these two factors when potential leaders are being selected. The lack of importance given job tenure however, suggests that length of service and experience in the job have little to do with effectiveness. The emphasis placed on this factor in selection and promotion practices should therefore be curtailed.

2. The situational variable - support by employees - was also perceived as being important in effective leadership by both managers and employees. This finding indicated that effectiveness of the leader would be increased by fostering an environment of supportiveness from the employees. The necessary skills required to gain support from employees should therefore be emphasized in manager development training.

3. As already suggested in recommendations for future research, different perspectives should be taken into account when examining the perceptions of leader behaviour. The manager is therefore able to gauge his or her perceived effectiveness from a number of sources - from his/her own perceptions of his/her behaviour and from the ratings of several different employees. Because effectiveness of the leader appears to depend heavily on support from the employees, employees unsatisfied with the manager's leadership style will be less likely to be supportive, thereby reducing the leader's effectiveness. By monitoring perceptions of leader

behaviour, the manager may be able to modify his or her leadership style to increase satisfaction and support, and thereby, enhance effectiveness.

The practical implications outlined are only tentative. The present research has attempted to explore the dimensions of effective leadership, with the aim of directing future research to further study of those factors. These practical implications therefore, are only guidelines for future study of leadership effectiveness.

Chapter Seven Conclusions

The findings of this research support the following conclusions:

1. The cognitive factors - intelligence and technical competence - are important in effective leadership.
2. The factor - job tenure - is NOT an important factor in effective leadership.
3. The lack of emphasis on cognitive factors in the leadership literature has not been justified.
4. Personality factors are important in effective leadership and should continue to be studied alongside the cognitive factors.
5. The situational variables, support by employees and structure of the task, are important in effective leadership, and should be included in research.
6. Managers' self ratings and employees' perceptions of manager behaviour DO NOT always correspond and therefore should not be considered as equivalent.
7. New Zealand managers are more transformational than transactional, and employees are more satisfied and perceive the leader as being more effective when the leader is transformational rather than transactional.

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Appendix 1

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I would like to thank all staff involved in the leadership survey carried out earlier this year. I have finally obtained some preliminary results and would therefore like to share them with you.

My thesis is on *the important factors perceived in effective leadership*. I attempted to discover these by giving out an already established questionnaire to management and a parallel one to staff who were responsible to that manager. Here the idea was to discover whether the ratings of the manager by the manager and his/her staff were similar. I did find a low BUT significant correlation between both sets of ratings, meaning that how managers view themselves and how employees view that manager, DO correspond.

Another important part of my thesis was seeing whether managers and employees thought the situation OR the personality of the manager were more important in making effective leaders. I had hypothesised that managers would view the situational factors as most important and the employees would find personality factors most important. Apparently not so. The order of importance of all the factors I had included are listed below. (The reasons why I included these factors are not given here, but if you are interested in the theory behind why, you are most welcome to contact me directly.)

SIGNIFICANT RESULTS (important factors)

- p 1. Technical Competence of the manager
- s 2. Support of the Manager by the employees
- p 3. Individual consideration by the manager
- p 4. Contingent Reward (reward for effort)
- s 5. The structure of the task
- p 6. Charisma of the manager
- p 7. Intellectual stimulation given to the employees
- p 8. Intelligence of the manager

INSIGNIFICANT RESULTS (unimportant factors)

- s 9. Stress put on the manager by his/her boss
- s 10. Power of the manager to reward/punish
- p 11. Managing by exception (only when things go wrong)
- p 12. Length of service of manager
- s 13. Luck

s=situational p=personality

There was little difference between managers and employees. I hope these preliminary results will be of value to your own leadership style.

Again I would like to thank you for your involvement, without which this research would not have been possible.

Yours sincerely,

Caroline Beardsley (B.A.)

Appendix 2

LEADERSHIP SURVEY

In this research we are trying to discover what factors are important in making up effective supervisors or leaders.

The following questionnaire is divided into three sections. The first set of questions have been designed by Professor Bass of Management Studies at the State University of New York. We would be grateful if you could go through these 70 items, and rate yourself on the frequency with which YOU fit the description.

Each item consists of one idea about management which is expressed in both a positive and a negative way. For example, the idea may be:

4 3 2 1 0 make my subordinates feel important

Your task is to write the number of the alternative to indicate how you would describe yourself. The number represents the five possible responses:

4	3	2	1	0
frequently	fairly	sometimes	once in	not at
if not always	often		a while	all

Please be sure to answer all questions in the bracket provided.
Thankyou.

Use the following for the five possible responses:

Key:	4	3	2	1	0
	Frequently, if not always	Fairly often	Sometimes	Once in awhile	Not at all

- () 1. My subordinates feel good to be around me.
- () 2. Whenever they feel it is necessary, my subordinates can negotiate with me about what they can receive for what they accomplish.
- () 3. I give personal attention to subordinates who seem neglected.
- () 4. I am content to let my subordinates continue to do their job in the same way as always.
- () 5. My ideas have forced my subordinates to rethink some of their own ideas which they had never questioned before.
-
- () 6. I get my subordinates to do more than they expected they could do.
- () 7. I only tell my subordinates what they have to know to perform their job.
- () 8. I delegate responsibilities to provide my subordinates with learning opportunities.
- () 9. I tell my subordinates what to do if they want to be rewarded for their efforts.
- () 10. My subordinates are proud to be associated with me.
-

Key:	4 :	3 :	2 :	1 :	0 :
	Frequently, if not always	Fairly often	Sometimes	Once in awhile	Not at all

- () 11. There is close agreement between what my subordinates are expected to put into the group effort and what they can get out of it.
- () 12. I enable my subordinates to think about old problems in new ways.
- () 13. My subordinates have complete faith in me.
- () 14. My subordinates cannot succeed in reaching their goals without me.
- () 15. I let my subordinates know how they are doing.
-
- () 16. I treat each subordinate individually.
- () 17. I do not try to change anything as long as things are going all right.
- () 18. I do not seem to care about results.
- () 19. I have provided my subordinates with new ways of looking at things which used to be a puzzle.
- () 20. I give my subordinates what they want in exchange for showing their support for me.
-
- () 21. I have a special gift of seeing what it is that is really important for my subordinates to consider.
- () 22. I talk about special commendations and promotions for good work.
- () 23. I am satisfied with my subordinates' performance as long as the old ways work.
- () 24. Without my vision of what lies ahead, my subordinates would find it difficult, if not impossible, to get very far.
- () 25. I find out what my subordinates want and help them to get it.
-
- () 26. In my mind, I am a symbol of success and accomplishment.
- () 27. I can be counted on to express my appreciation when my subordinates do a good job.
- () 28. I have everyone's respect.
- () 29. I make everyone around me enthusiastic about assignments.
- () 30. I avoid making decisions.

Key:	4	3	2	1	0
	:	:	:	:	:
	Frequently, if not always	Fairly often	Sometimes	Once in awhile	Not at all

- () 31. I have a sense of mission which I transmit to my subordinates.
- () 32. I increase my subordinate's optimism for the future.
- () 33. My subordinates are ready to trust me to overcome any obstacle.
- () 34. I show that I am a firm believer in "if it ain't broken, don't fix it".
- () 35. I provide my subordinates with reasons to change the way they think about problems.
-
- () 36. I motivate my subordinates to do more than they originally expected they would do.
- () 37. I stay out of my subordinates' way.
- () 38. I take action if objectives are not met.
- () 39. I stress the use of intelligence to overcome obstacles.
- () 40. I arouse in my subordinates the effort to work harder and better.
-
- () 41. If my subordinates don't bother me, I don't bother them.
- () 42. I arrange that my subordinates get what they want in exchange for their efforts.
- () 43. I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from what is expected of my subordinates.
- () 44. I require that my subordinates back up their opinions with good reasoning.
- () 45. I enable my subordinates to get a lot more done than they could have if I were not around.
-
- () 46. I don't make much difference to my subordinate group's performance.
- () 47. My subordinates can get what they need if they work as agreed with me.
- () 48. I spend a lot of time coaching each individual subordinate who needs it.
- () 49. As long as things are going according to earlier plans, I do not consider trying to make improvements.
- () 50. I get to the heart of complex problems quickly.

Key:	4	3	2	1	0
	:	:	:	:	:
	Frequently, if not always	Fairly often	Sometimes	Once in awhile	Not at all

- () 51. My subordinates go faster, higher and/or farther in reaching objectives because of me.
- () 52. I am likely to be absent when needed.
- () 53. My subordinates have an agreement with me about what needs to be done and what they will get for doing it.
- () 54. I provide advice to those who need it.
- () 55. I take corrective action if my subordinates make mistakes.
-
- () 56. I place heavy emphasis on careful problem-solving before taking action.
- () 57. I heighten my subordinates' motivation to succeed.
- () 58. I am hard to find when a crisis arises.
- () 59. I point out what my subordinates will receive if they do what needs to be done.
- () 60. I am ready to serve as my subordinates' teacher whenever they need instruction.
-
- () 61. I concentrate my attention on failures to meet quotas or standards.
- () 62. I make sure my subordinates think through what is involved before taking actions.
- () 63. I give "pep" talks to my subordinates.
- () 64. Whatever my subordinates do is OK with me.
- () 65. I give my subordinates recognition when they perform at standard or better.
-
- () 66. I give newcomers a lot of help.
- () 67. I arrange to know when things go wrong.
- () 68. I get my subordinates to use reasoning and evidence, rather than unsupported opinion.
- () 69. I stimulate my subordinates efforts to excel.
- () 70. My subordinates don't know where I stand on issues.

() 71. My primary educational background was:

- A. Math-Science-Engineering-Technology
- B. Business
- C. Social Science
- D. Humanities
- E. Other

() 72. My current annual salary (excluding benefits) is:

- A. \$35,000 or under
- B. \$35,000 to \$55,000
- C. \$56,000 to \$75,000
- D. \$76,000 to \$95,000
- E. \$95,000 or over

() 73. The level of my position is:

- A. First-line: lowest level of management
- B. Second-line: supervises first-line
- C. Third-line
- D. Fourth-line
- E. Fifth-line or higher

() 74. In terms of the five above alternatives, what is the highest level possible in your organization?

For items 75-78: A - Extremely Effective; B - Very Effective;
 C - Effective; D - Only Slightly Effective;
 E - Not Effective

() 75. The overall work effectiveness of the unit made up of yourself and your immediate subordinates can be classified as:

() 76. How effective are you in representing your unit with higher authority?

() 77. How effective are you in meeting the job-related needs of subordinates?

() 78. How effective are you in meeting the requirements of the organization?

For items 79-80: A - Very Satisfied; B - Fairly Satisfied
 C - Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied;
 D - Somewhat Dissatisfied; E - Very Dissatisfied

() 79. In all, how satisfied do you think your subordinates are with you as their superior?

() 80. In all, how satisfied are you that the methods of leadership you use are the right ones for getting your unit's job done?

Appendix 3

LEADERSHIP SURVEY

In this research we are trying to discover what factors are important in making up effective supervisors or leaders.

The following questionnaire is divided into three sections. The first set of questions have been designed by Professor Bass of Management Studies at the State University of New York. We would be grateful if you could go through these 70 items, and rate your own supervisor on the frequency with which they fit the description.

Each item consists of one idea about management which is expressed in both a positive and a negative way. For example, the idea may be:

4 3 2 1 0 makes me feel important

Your task is to write the number of the alternative to indicate how you would describe your supervisor. The number represents the five possible responses:

4	3	2	1	0
frequently	fairly	sometimes	once in	not at all
if not always	often		a while	

Please be sure to answer all questions in the bracket provided. Thankyou.

Use the following for the five possible responses.

Key:	4	3	2	1	0
	Frequently if not always	Fairly often	Sometimes	Once in a while	Not at all

- | | | | | | | |
|-------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| () | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 1. makes me feel good to be around him/her. |
| () | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 2. whenever I feel it necessary, I can negotiate with him/her what I can get for what I accomplish |
| () | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 3. gives personal attention to members who seem neglected |
| () | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 4. is content to let me continue doing my job in the same way as always |
| () | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 5. his/her ideas have forced me to rethink some of my own ideas which I had never questioned before |
| <hr/> | | | | | | |
| () | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 6. makes me do more than I expected I could do |
| () | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 7. only tells me what I have to know to do my job |
| () | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 8. uses delegation to provide us with learning opportunities |
| () | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 9. tells me what to do if I want to be rewarded for my efforts |
| () | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 10. makes me proud to be associated with him/her |
-

Key:	4	3	2	1	0	
	Frequently if not always	Fairly often	Sometimes	Once in a while	Not at all	
() 4	3	2	1	0	11.	there is a close agreement between what I am expected to put into the group effort and what I can get out of it.
() 4	3	2	1	0	12.	enables me to think about old problems in new ways
() 4	3	2	1	0	13.	I have complete faith in him/her
() 4	3	2	1	0	14.	I cannot succeed in reaching our goals without him/her
() 4	3	2	1	0	15.	tells me how I am doing
() 4	3	2	1	0	16.	treats each subordinate individually
() 4	3	2	1	0	17.	as long as things are going along all right, he/she does not try to change anything
() 4	3	2	1	0	18.	asks no more of me than what is absolutely essential to get the work done
() 4	3	2	1	0	19.	has provided me with new ways of looking at things which used to be a puzzle
() 4	3	2	1	0	20.	gives me what I want in exchange for showing my support for him/her
() 4	3	2	1	0	21.	has a special gift of seeing what it is that is really important for me to consider
() 4	3	2	1	0	22.	talks about special commendations and promotions for good work
() 4	3	2	1	0	23.	as long as the old ways work, he/she is satisfied with my performance
() 4	3	2	1	0	24.	without his/her vision of what lies ahead, we would find it difficult if not impossible to get very far
() 4	3	2	1	0	25.	finds out what I want and helps me to get it
() 4	3	2	1	0	26.	in my mind, he/she is a symbol of success and accomplishment
() 4	3	2	1	0	27.	you can count on him/her to express his/her appreciation when you do a good job
() 4	3	2	1	0	28.	has everyone's respect
() 4	3	2	1	0	29.	makes everyone around him/her enthusiastic about assignments
() 4	3	2	1	0	30.	it is all right if I take initiatives, but he/she does not encourage me to do so

Key:	4	3	2	1	0	
	Frequently, if not always	Fairly often	Sometimes	Once in a while	Not at all	
() ⁴	3	2	1	0		31. has a sense of mission which he/she transmits to me
() ⁴	3	2	1	0		32. increases my optimism for the future
() ⁴	3	2	1	0		33. I am ready to trust in him/her to overcome any obstacle
() ⁴	3	2	1	0		34. shows he/she is a firm believer in "If it ain't broken, don't fix it"
() ⁴	3	2	1	0		35. provides me with reasons to change the way I think about problems
() ⁴	3	2	1	0		36. excites us about what we can accomplish if we work together
() ⁴	3	2	1	0		37. stays out of our way
() ⁴	3	2	1	0		38. only if targets are not met will he/she take action
() ⁴	3	2	1	0		39. stresses the use of intelligence to overcome obstacles
() ⁴	3	2	1	0		40. arouses in me the effort to work harder and better
() ⁴	3	2	1	0		41. if we don't bother him/her, he/she doesn't bother us
() ⁴	3	2	1	0		42. he/she arranges that we get what we want in exchange for our efforts
() ⁴	3	2	1	0		43. focuses main attentions on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from what is expected of us
() ⁴	3	2	1	0		44. requires that we back up our opinions with good reasoning
() ⁴	3	2	1	0		45. enables me to get a lot more done than I could have if he/she were not around
() ⁴	3	2	1	0		46. he/she does not make much difference to our group's performance
() ⁴	3	2	1	0		47. I can get what I need if I work as agreed with him/her
() ⁴	3	2	1	0		48. spends a lot of time coaching each individual subordinate who needs it
() ⁴	3	2	1	0		49. as long as things are going according to earlier plans, he/she does not consider trying to make improvements
() ⁴	3	2	1	0		50. gets to the heart of complex problems quickly

Key:						4	3	2	1	0
						Frequently if not always	Fairly often	Sometimes	Once in a while	Not at all
()	4	3	2	1	0	51.	we go faster, higher and/or farther in reaching objectives because of him/her			
()	4	3	2	1	0	52.	is likely to be absent when needed			
()	4	3	2	1	0	53.	I have a "contract" with him/her about what needs to be done and what I will get for doing it			
()	4	3	2	1	0	54.	provides advice to those who need it			
()	4	3	2	1	0	55.	if we make mistakes, we can expect he/she will be quick to take corrective action			
()	4	3	2	1	0	56.	places heavy emphasis on careful problem-solving before taking action			
()	4	3	2	1	0	57.	heightens my motivation to succeed			
()	4	3	2	1	0	58.	is hard to find when a crisis arises			
()	4	3	2	1	0	59.	points out what I will receive if I do what needs to be done			
()	4	3	2	1	0	60.	is ready to serve as your teacher whenever you need instruction			
()	4	3	2	1	0	61.	concentrates his/her attention on failures to meet quotas or standards			
()	4	3	2	1	0	62.	makes sure we think through what is involved before taking actions			
()	4	3	2	1	0	63.	gives us "pep" talks			
()	4	3	2	1	0	64.	whatever we do is OK with him/her			
()	4	3	2	1	0	65.	gives you recognition when you perform at standard or better			
()	4	3	2	1	0	66.	gives newcomers a lot of help			
()	4	3	2	1	0	67.	arranges to know as soon as possible when things go wrong			
()	4	3	2	1	0	68.	get us to use reasoning and evidence rather than unsupported opinion			
()	4	3	2	1	0	69.	stimulates our efforts to excel			
()	4	3	2	1	0	70.	you don't know where he/she stands on issues			

Appendix 4

What makes some individuals better supervisors or leaders than others?

- 1. The supervisor has a high level of intelligence.
- 2. The supervisor gets on well with the people she/he supervises.
- 3. The supervisor is charismatic and makes subordinates feel good to be around her/him.
- 4. The amount of structure that exists in the task that the supervisor and subordinates are trying to accomplish.
- 5. The supervisor has been in the job for a long time.
- 6. The power given to the supervisor to directly administer rewards or punishments to the subordinates.
- 7. The supervisor tends to leave subordinates alone so long as things are running smoothly.
- 8. The supervisor has the competence to do the job well.
- 9. The characteristics of the organisation.
- 10. The supervisor gives personal attention to individual subordinates.
- 11. The amount of stress from his/her own boss.
- 12. The supervisor provides subordinates with intellectual stimulation.
- 13. Factors beyond the supervisor's control, such as luck.
- 14. The supervisor tries to reward subordinates whenever they deserve it.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Extremely important			Moderately important			not at all important

Appendix 5

In the final part of this questionnaire, we have listed some common explanations of why some supervisors or leaders are better or more effective than others. We would be grateful if you could rate each of these explanations from your own perspective, i.e. that of a supervisor or an employee. A 7 point scale is used in which 1=extremely important; 4=moderately important, and 7=not at all important, in explaining why some supervisors or leaders are more effective than others. Please answer all questions next to the statement concerned, in the bracket provided. Do not omit any items, and be sure to mark each item only once. Thankyou.

your position is -----(supervisor or employee). Please complete the ratings from the perspective of your own position. Thank you .

- () 1. The supervisor has a high level of intelligence.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
extremely			moderately			not at all
important			important			important

- () 2. The employees are supportive of the supervisor.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
extremely			moderately			not at all
important			important			important

- () 3. The supervisor is charismatic and makes subordinates feel good to be around him/her.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
extremely			moderately			not at all
important			important			important

- () 4. The task is highly structured and clear-cut, i.e. the goals and methods used are clearly stated.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
extremely			moderately			not at all
important			important			important

- () 5. The supervisor has been in the job for a long time.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
extremely			moderately			not at all
important			important			important

- () 6. The supervisor has been given the power to directly reward or punish the subordinates.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
extremely			moderately			not at all
important			important			important

- () 7. The supervisor tends to leave subordinates alone so long as things are moving smoothly.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
extremely			moderately			not at all
important			important			important

- () 8. The supervisor gives personal attention to individual subordinates.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
extremely			moderately			not at all
important			important			important

- () 9. The supervisor has the competence to do the job well.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
extremely			moderately			not at all
important			important			important

- () 10. The amount of stress put on the supervisor by his/her own boss.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
extremely			moderately			not at all
important			important			important

- () 11. The supervisor provides subordinates with intellectual stimulation.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
extremely			moderately			not at all
important			important			important

- () 12. Factors beyond the supervisor's control, such as luck.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
extremely			moderately			not at all
important			important			important

- () 13. The supervisor tries to reward subordinates whenever they deserve it.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
extremely			moderately			not at all
important			important			important